

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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## Intelligence Work at First Army Headquarters

BY JOHN C. PARISH, PH.D.<sup>1</sup>

If any reader supposes that an article on intelligence work should be a succession of marvelous tales of spies who sneak forth in the gray of dawn, crawl through the barb-wire entanglements without injury to their Prussian officer's uniform, and by nightfall are clinking glasses with the aides-de-camp of Marshall Hindenburg, let me hasten to disillusion him. Perhaps such wonderful individuals existed, but they did not reveal themselves to the ordinary and prosaic officers of the intelligence section of the First American Army.

Nevertheless, the function of an intelligence section is precisely that of a spy. It is the business of the section to find out by any and every means, all the information possible in regard to the enemy. And the methods by which this information is secured, though less hazardous to the intelligence officer, involve him in a game that is perhaps not less fascinating than the work of a spy.

It is obvious that no general can plan an offensive or even adequately arrange for his own defense unless he is informed as to the character of the land opposite him, the resistance in man power he may expect to meet, and the character and efficiency of the enemy's entrenchments, instruments of warfare and lines of communication. Therefore, all modern armies have intelligence sections.

Germany developed hers before she went to war. The Allies were forced to develop theirs more quickly to meet the situation. When the American Expeditionary Forces arrived in Europe they began at once to learn the modern intelligence game. While brigaded with the British and French the American staffs relied to a great extent upon the intelligence systems which these two powers had worked out during three long years of experience. In this association many excellent American intelligence officers were developed, some of whom received additional training in British intelligence schools.

Anticipating, however, the formation of the First American Army and the taking over of a real American sector, it was evident that there was necessary a more rapid development of this highly specialized

work. It was found advisable, therefore, to organize the Army Intelligence School for the training of American intelligence officers.

Late in July, 1918, about fifty officers gathered at the high-walled and historic French town of Langres for six weeks of intensive study. The group had been drawn widely from the American Expeditionary Forces. Some men had been called back from the front line in Northern France and Belgium, the mud of the trenches still on their boots; some had come from less active sectors in the Vosges region; others were from more recently arrived divisions still undergoing training in the areas back of the lines.

The instructors were American, British and French officers experienced in the recent operations, and the term comprised six weeks of the most concentrated training. Examinations were frequent and casualties often occurred. The amount of information one had to acquire in that brief time seemed appalling. It was necessary to learn all about the German Army—the organization of staff and line, the details of recruiting, and the stages and classes of service from that of the young boy entering active service to that of the comparatively old man in the landsturm, the grades of officers and men, the numbers and arrangements of units of infantry, cavalry, field artillery, foot artillery and mountain artillery, the composition of machine gun organizations, jager battalions, engineers and pioneer groups. The officers diligently learned the origin of every one of the several hundred German divisions. They studied the expansion and reformation of the German Army during the war, and tried to memorize the details of their equipment and uniform, their artillery weapons, shells, fuses, gas projectors and a hundred other details.

Aside from the German Army it was necessary to learn to interpret airplane photographs, to use military maps with readiness, to gain familiarity with the theatre of operations, and to learn the routine of intelligence work in regiments, divisions and higher echelons.

Those who were studying for the interrogation of prisoners had the opportunity of practice by catechising groups of actual German prisoners brought back from the front. These interrogations were carried out against time and were excellent training. It may be interesting to note that the necessity in this work of a familiarity with the German language led to an

<sup>1</sup> Associate Editor, State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City. During the war Doctor Parish served as First Lieutenant, later Captain of Infantry, in the 89th Division. He was assigned to G2 of the First Army, A. E. F., and later to G2 of the 8th Corps, A. E. F.

array of names that would have made the council of defense of any State in the Union suspicious. I slept at night in a group consisting of three Oscars and a Rudolph.

The first school closed about September 1, and assignments were made to the various headquarters in the First American Army, by this time in possession of its own sector and preparing to launch the St. Mihiel drive. Some officers went to regiments, some to divisions, some to corps, and some to the headquarters of the army. The latter post was one of great strategic interest, for from here the two major American operations—St. Mihiel and the Argonne-Meuse—were planned and directed.

A diagram of the units of an army in combat presents—at least theoretically—the general form of a triangle or fan with the front line as the base and the headquarters of the army as the apex. Along the base line are strung the various divisions holding sectors and carrying on the actual front-line combat. Back a little distance are the headquarters of the corps—staff organizations formed for the control and correlation of from two to four divisions each. Still further back is army headquarters, controlling and coordinating the work of the corps, and, through them, the entire offensive.

In the early days of September, 1918, the army staff was at Ligny-en-Barrois, having moved there recently from Neufchateau in order to be nearer the point of the St. Mihiel salient. The new officers joined the intelligence section which was at that time busily engaged in collecting information and making final preparations for the offensive which began on September 12. Although the sector was quiet for the time, the front-line troops succeeded in capturing and sending back prisoners for examination, and hundreds of airplane photographs taken over the territory occupied by the salient offered the chance for application of ideas recently acquired in school.

It may be well to mention briefly here the general organization of an army staff. In a combat army, and in corps and divisions as well, the staff was divided into sections which went by the cryptic designations of G1, G2, G3, etc. These letters and figures were applied alike to the men who headed the sections and to the sections themselves. G1 was in charge of administration, G2 had charge of intelligence, and G3 of operations.

The intelligence and operations sections supplemented each other and worked in constant liaison. G2 was concerned with finding out all he could about the enemy. He focussed his attention upon the other side of no-man's land and paid little heed to the troops of his own army. G3, on the other hand, took the word of G2 as to conditions on the far side of the line. His task was to handle the troops on his own side of the line. Thus G3 had to do with planning the campaigns and manœuvring the attack or defense on the basis of information given him by G2. They hunted in pairs like a jury lawyer and his office partner.

The St. Mihiel offensive showed the benefit of such

close relationship. The exact and very significant information furnished by G2 was of the utmost importance in determining the manner in which the blow should be struck. The offensive started under auspicious circumstances, and in less than a week's time that famous and long-standing salient had been obliterated.

Then came a brief lull. There were plenty of tasks, for every one knew that another offensive was coming, but the days were quiet and pleasant. Often at five o'clock in the afternoon the officers of G2 would leave work for an hour and go for a swim in the canal that flowed along the edge of town. But the nights were not quiet. I had a room on the main street, and night after night, unable to lie in bed, I would sit in the window for hours looking down upon the significant movements in the unlighted street below. Sometimes it would be an unending line of army trucks lumbering along in the semi-darkness—again it would be an interminable procession of weirdly-painted guns and caissons. And often the pavement would echo with the incessant tramp of feet as platoon after platoon of tired American doughboys with mountainous packs trudged by through the weary night hours. They were on their way up to the Argonne front for the new offensive, and soon the army headquarters also moved on. That window will not be used for observation purposes again, for not long after the staff had moved northward, a German air raid visited Ligny-en-Barrois and the billet I had occupied was blown to pieces.

During the Argonne-Meuse offensive the staff was at Souilly—a mud hole a few miles southwest of Verdun. In this operation G2 functioned at its best. It embraced a group of about thirty or forty officers and a considerable force of enlisted men, divided into sub-sections or assigned to special duties.

A brief outline of the work of three of the sub-sections of G2 which loomed large in the daily routine of information-gathering may serve to illustrate the operations of the intelligence section. These three divisions concerned themselves respectively with the examination of prisoners, the order of battle, and the enemy works.

In the first of these sub-sections the Oscars and Rudolphs of the Intelligence School found themselves at home, and their work was fruitful of the most valuable results. Prisoners captured at the front were hurried back with as little delay as possible, and came marching two by two in a long line of often many hundreds into the army cage at Souilly. There were thousands of prisoners constantly in this cage, and the amount of information obtainable from this source can easily be imagined. Incidentally the presence of these thousands of German sons across the road from army headquarters no doubt did much to prevent these headquarters from being bombed by German airplanes, for it is inconceivable that such a landmark could escape observation by their reconnaissance and photographic planes.

For the most part the German infantrymen who were brought into camp did not look particularly

downcast over their situation. The sourest-looking prisoners I ever saw were a pair of aviators who limped in just ahead of two American bayonets. Their clothing was partly burned off and they were swathed in numerous bandages. Evidently they had come to grief in the air, and were lucky to be alive, but nothing but gloom and hatred appeared on their faces.

When large groups of prisoners came in, the interrogators were kept very busy, for the information in order to be of use must be secured at once and passed on to those who could avail themselves of it. The sub-division had therefore to be systematically organized. Each interrogating officer was assigned certain enemy divisions in the sector, and was responsible for the prisoners from his units. Upon arrival at the cage they were classified by units and given a preliminary examination. This was followed by a more detailed examination of those who appeared likely to give the information desired. Officers were kept apart from the men and from each other, and individual examinations were found to bring the best results. Alsations and other disaffected peoples were separated from the rest and proved fertile sources of knowledge.

Two methods obtain in the examination of prisoners. One is a business-like interrogation without harsh measures or the use of violence. The other involves the rough physical handling of prisoners. The American Army found the former method much more efficacious.

The French interrogators were inclined to follow fixed questionnaires which they had prepared in advance, and which covered innumerable details. The Americans were more disposed to let the circumstances govern their interrogations except for certain facts which were always called for.

From the examination of prisoners—most of whom talked freely—there was obtained not only identification of the organizations fronting our troops, but information in regard to their routes in reaching the front, the position and condition of enemy works, such as trenches, dugouts and wire entanglements, the morale of the troops, the number of effectives, the amount of ammunition and weapons and food, and a score of other phases of military activity.

Great exercise of judgment was necessary in determining the veracity of prisoners' statements. On ordinary points the large number of men questioned made it possible to check one against the others. In special interrogations where only one man could tell the story, the statement must be accepted with reserve and checked up by every other possible means of information, such as airplane photography, ground and aerial observation, and the examination of captured documents and maps.

The examination of documents captured from the enemy was a part of the work of this sub-section, and much valuable information was gleaned from the great quantities of letters, postcards, diaries and the occasional military orders and reports found on prisoners.

The group of officers who concerned themselves with order of battle were the men who were expert in

their knowledge of the German Army. Each day they prepared a battle order map which showed the front line with the different organizations indicated in the positions they occupied opposite our sector.

Furthermore, they contributed to the daily *Summary of Intelligence*, issued in the small hours of the morning, a detailed description of the opposing enemy divisions. They collected and gave information as to the strength and past history of each division, recounted its losses and replacements, described its route to the present sector, its style of fighting and its morale. They studied and reported on reserves, they watched the circulation of enemy troops in the back areas, their camps and training grounds, and wrote articles telling what were the probable intentions of the enemy. They must keep track not only of their own sector, but of the entire enemy force from the Channel to Switzerland. They could tell at any given time whether the 5th Guard Division or the 16th Bavarian Division or any other unit of the German Army was in a training area near Metz, or in the Vosges Mountains, or up in Belgium.

In brief, they must make themselves authorities on the entire German Army, and with discriminating eye watch and interpret the movements on or behind the line, the relief of divisions, the withdrawal of elements from one sector to re-enforce another or to seek a recuperating area, the massing of reserves for a mighty drive as in the spring of 1918, or for a desperate defense as in the fall of 1918.

The officers in the enemy works sub-division, on the other hand, busied themselves not with the armies of the enemy, but with the products of those armies. They studied the physical works which the enemy was constantly constructing for offense or defense—the trench systems, wire entanglements, the camouflaged battery positions and machine-gun nests, dugouts and hidden posts of command, ammunition and material dumps, narrow-gauge railroads and communication lines, airdromes, hospitals, camps and rest billets.

These officers had to know absolutely the geography of the territory opposite the army sector for miles back of the front line. They were familiar with the details of the construction of trench systems and other military works; and, above all, they must be expert in the interpretation of airplane photographs, for by this means the greater part of their information was acquired. They must, however, get their facts from every possible source. Sometimes observations made from balloons or from airplanes furnished them with clues. Sometimes the long-range telescopes of men in observation posts revealed new conditions. Much information was gotten from the prisoner examination officers, and sometimes they conducted examinations themselves if prisoners were found who had a specially detailed knowledge of areas of which the enemy works men needed information.

Airplane photographs were taken by squadrons attached to the army. Two-place machines were sent out with the observer handling the camera. Definite assignments or missions were given, and when the line or area indicated had been traversed and the



series of pictures snapped, the pilot pointed the nose of his plane homeward and did not loiter by the way. The cargo of photographic plates was too precious to allow the aviators to engage in any combats that could be avoided. Incidentally, it is probable that many a front-line doughboy looking up as the plane passed, and seeing it apparently running away from a German plane like a dog with his tail between his legs, cursed violently and registered one more grievance against the pusillanimous airmen who always ran for the air-drome when Boche planes were in the region.

In the Argonne-Meuse offensive the enemy works officer counted the photographs doubly precious, for the reason that for weeks on end the weather was such as to render airplane photography almost useless. Thick layers of clouds hid the enemy and his works from the airman's view.

Whenever photographs were taken prints were made and sent to G2 for interpretation. The term interpretation in connection with air photos is used advisedly. They do not usually show the actual object sought, but merely indications of such an object. For example: One finds running across a print a succession of faint white dots about the same distance apart, frequently connected with a thin white line. In this particular instance the novice will make a good guess. He will say that it is a telephone line—that the white dots are the poles and the white line the wire. But, considering the fact that the picture was probably taken from about three miles in the air, it would seem hardly possible to see the six or eight inch top of a pole or distinguish the one-eighth inch strand of wire. It actually is a telephone line, but the white dots are the piles of earth thrown up from beneath the surface in digging the post hole. Freshly dug earth is known as spoil and shows white on the picture. The thin white line is not wire, but is the path made by the feet of the lineman as he passed from one pole to another. This is but a typical case. Man cannot dig up the ground or walk upon its surface without giving his secret to the camera. A battery may try to hide in a wood, but the white telltale lines will show the path by which the personnel entered the wood, and if the foliage is not too thick, their activities even under cover may be betrayed.

Photographs were always compared immediately with large scale maps and with earlier photos of the same area for the purpose of discovering any new works, or any change in the old arrangement. In case of such discovery, the information gained was reported and gotten into the hands of those who were most vitally concerned, the map was marked for revision and the photo was filed away for future reference.

The enemy works officer came to know this enemy territory—which he had never seen—far better than he knew his own home county. The top elevation of patches of wood gave each one an individual shape. The bird's-eye views of no two towns were alike, and from constant study the network of roads, narrow-gauge lines and trench systems became strongly impressed upon the mind.

Space will not permit a discussion of the many interesting phases of the military use of air photography. Suffice it to say that it provided the most accurate means of determining what was taking place for miles back of the enemy's lines. The camera was not subject to bias nor was there any species of camouflage that was of much avail against its discerning eye.

There remains to be told something as to the distribution of the information gathered by the various subdivisions in G2. There were several important groups beside the three described, and one of these, the topographical sub-division, was perhaps the most indispensable of all. It was the group which produced the hundreds of different maps required in a large operation, not only the regularly revised maps for the use of troops and staffs, but the multitude of special maps which they were asked to prepare not only for G2, but for the other sections of the staff as well. Working always overtime they became the faithful recorders and distributors of information gathered by the entire army.

Many of the facts gathered during the day were of such supreme importance that they were telephoned or telegraphed to the party who could use them. For instance, a report of a body of troops or a train of supply wagons proceeding along a certain road behind the enemy's lines could be made use of by the artillery if they received immediate notice. An enemy balloon located by airplane photos would rest no longer quietly on its bed along the edge of the woods if the air service could be notified by wire.

There was published, however, in the night after all reports of the day were in, a daily bulletin called the *Summary of Intelligence*. This went down to troops in the early morning, and contained the facts as they had been gleaned by the various sub-sections and special officers. The *Summary* was prepared under the supervision of the chief of G2, and consisted of a dozen so-called paragraphs—some comparatively short, some occupying a number of pages. Appendices of special information were added as occasion demanded.

A stranger walking into the G2 office barracks towards midnight would probably have thought he was in a newspaper office. At each desk a man would be working feverishly under a hanging light, anxious to get his copy in and get away to his army cot, others would be waiting for late reports or delayed photographs still to be examined before the night's work was done. There were no clanking presses, but Murphy would be grooming the multigraph machine ready for the morning run.

Sometimes incidents occurred which have no counterpart in a well-regulated newspaper office. Occasionally in the midst of the late evening rush, the lights would flicker out—the sign of danger of an air raid—and groping out of the darkness, officers and men would gather in the road in front and watch the giant searchlights criss-crossing their long shafts about the heavens in search of the enemy, the inter-



mittent sound of whose engines might perhaps be heard in the inky heights above the camp.

The files of the daily *Summary of Intelligence* must—when they are made available to the public—furnish one of the most notable sources from which the historian can draw material in regard to the campaigns of the First American Army. They constitute a very carefully prepared contemporary presentation of the events and conditions that marked each day's fighting. In this *Summary* is incorporated a daily delineation of the enemy front line and detailed statements of the facts discovered during each period of twenty-four hours, regarding the enemy. The operations of our troops can be followed to advantage through other sources. But nowhere else can there be found so adequate and definite a statement of the resistance, human and otherwise, which the troops of the army were meeting.

The six weeks of the Argonne-Meuse operation

passed rapidly. It became increasingly evident that the hold of the enemy on this vitally important sector was weakening. Prisoners gave evidence of constant loss of morale, and acceptance of the inevitable; the battle order officers reported a steady decrease of fresh German divisions—that is, divisions which had been out of the line for a month—until the zero point was not far off; and airplane photos showed few signs of new works, and indicated only further withdrawal. Yet the end came sooner than most men expected.

With the going into effect of the armistice, the officers of G2, what time they were not occupied writing the obituaries of their functions, became sightseers and souvenir hunters, and when their final records were written and they had boxed up the photograph files and maps and captured documents and sent them off to G. H. Q. at Chaumont, they with one accord proceeded to forget all about the German Army and its works and dream about the Statue of Liberty.

## A Potential Solution for the Irish Question

BY EDITH E. WARE, BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.

"The Irish question is a world question, because certain root principles involved are among those for which the late war was fought."—SIR HORACE PLUNKETT.

A remarkable weekly, published in Dublin since June 28, 1919, introduced itself to the world with the announcement:

"We shall devote our main attention to the inherent right of self-government. If we repudiate British administration in Ireland, we do so not solely because government without the consent of the governed is morally indefensible, but because such government is and of its nature must be materially incompetent."

The editors had become convinced that nothing toward a rational settlement was being accomplished, because only two voices were heard in Ireland: the one demanding sovereign independence, the other insisting upon the continuance of the existing regime. They determined, therefore, to voice the sentiment of those who believed in neither extreme, but who recognized the need of setting up responsible government, and of making known to the liberal British public that there was some ground for action. This liberal constructive opinion within Ireland was to be organized through the Irish Dominion League, whose manifesto was published in this first number of the *Irish Statesman*.

A careful perusal of a few numbers of the *Statesman* convinces one that the liberals contributing to it are not merely idealists, but are as well thoughtful, well-trained, experienced students of public affairs. Most prominent among them one finds Sir Horace Plunkett and Æ (George William Russell). The former was long a liberal Unionist who had argued eloquently (in *Ireland in the Nineteenth Century*) that the Irish problem was not political or religious, but economic. He has worked persistently to prove his

theory, and through the Recess Committee of the British Parliament in 1897, secured for Ireland the establishment and endowment of the Department of Agriculture and Other Industries and Technical Education. The machinery of this department consisted of a Council of Agriculture, elected by the County Councils, which shared with the department the appointment of an Agricultural Board and a Board of Technical Instruction. These Boards supervised directly the improvement of methods of agriculture, of co-operative buying, and of more profitable marketing; provided itinerant education for the farmer in the care of live stock, for the farmer's wife in household arts; and established technical schools. In the increase of prosperity the results exceeded expectations. It was, in fact, often asserted that in 1914, at the beginning of war, Ireland was more prosperous than she had been for generations. Indeed, the export statistics of 1917 would prove that in the south of Ireland, which is mainly agricultural, the prosperity had become comparable even with that of Ulster, which previously had been the richer section.

### ULSTER.

Textiles .....	£38,000,000
Manufactured goods .....	57,000,000
Ships .....	8,000,000

### SOUTH OF IRELAND.

Meat .....	£38,000,000
Food and drink .....	71,000,000
Butter, eggs and poultry .....	17,000,000

Yet, although the economic conditions of the country were improved, the Irish problem remained. Therefore, Sir Horace became convinced that Ireland's grievances were mainly political, a result of the policy of the British Government.

Æ having been convinced of the value of the co-operative methods of the Council of Agriculture, accepted it as his model for solving the problems within Ireland. He pictured to himself a state in which the special interests of every group, whether composed of factory hands, agriculturalists, manufacturers, landlords, educators, or fishermen should be administered by departments within the government made up of representatives chosen by those directly concerned. Over all, for the administration of civil rights which should affect all alike, whether rich or poor, laborer or capitalist, Protestant or Catholic, there should be a general parliament. Such a government, as the one best suited to Irish needs, he portrayed in 1916 in his "National Being."

Thus the manifesto of the League, for which these men are largely responsible, commands attention because it is the culmination of experiment and constant study. And for these reasons, Article One, which states that "the League is to promote the immediate establishment of self-government for Ireland within the Empire," becomes eloquent, as these familiar words acquire a specific connotation—they mean, the *Statesman* repeatedly explains, that the self-government is to be such as will fit Irish needs, not necessarily self-government as practiced in England or elsewhere. Within the status of a Dominion, for which there is ample precedent, they claim it will be possible to work out an Irish solution for an Irish problem. As a Dominion they desire, moreover, to be represented in the League of Nations. Thus the nationalism they advocate is not the nationalism of the nineties; it is the nationalism of to-day.

To those who desire the *status quo*, or who would continue to send representatives to Westminster the Leaguers argue that it would be irrational, because it is impossible for the non-Irish majority to understand Irish conditions sufficiently to legislate wisely for them; and that legislation for the British Isles frequently brings hardship to Ireland where the industrial and economic life is, in the main, quite different from that in England.

They acknowledge to the Sinn Feiners that Ireland is an entity, and hence ought not to be a subsidiary to England, but should be governed in its own interests—"for ourselves alone." Granting that, they claim that it is impossible to ignore geography and the state of world politics. Geographically, Ireland lies just west of England, and from the standpoint of defense is necessarily a part of the British Isles. England, in fact, is as necessary to Irish defense as Ireland is to English; and the question of defense must still be considered since there is no sign of disarmament in the present program of the League of Nations. Since, therefore, defense is indispensable, and since it is an interest common to England and Ireland, the independence of Ireland as a state outside the Empire is foolhardy. They also point out that if Ireland were independent she might find herself, by new tariff barriers which England may erect, deprived of her principal market. Instead, therefore, of arguing for absolute independence the Dominion League ad-

vocates co-operation in defense and in trade regulation; but in all else, self-determination.

In the outline of their manifesto is first, that Ireland shall become a self-governing Dominion, not represented at Westminster, but in the League of Nations, and with the same status as any other Dominion in whatever Imperial Conference or Council or Parliament the Imperial Parliament may at any time establish; secondly, that trade relations between the two islands shall be agreed upon by mutual consent, not dictated by the more powerful country; and that military and naval defense of the islands shall be under a single central control, Ireland making an agreed contribution in money and kind, but with no compulsory service imposed other than that decreed by the Irish Parliament; thirdly, that the Irish Parliament shall have complete jurisdiction over all legislation for Ireland, in the levying, collecting and expending of taxes, including customs and excise; fourthly, they ask Ulster to state what special safeguards it demands, since, as they acknowledge no constitutional right of secession, they feel that there is no Ulster question other than that involved in the right of a minority to be recognized.

This summary makes it quite clear that while the members of the Dominion League are thinking and planning for Ireland, they are thinking of Ireland as a unit, a part of the world. As part of the world she is either within or without the British Empire. It appears to them that it is not only better for all concerned, but the only possible solution that she remain within the Empire. Concerning her status within the Empire, they hold equally firm convictions. They have precedent to follow; and it seems perfectly obvious to them that Ireland is different from England in race, traditions, industry; that she is as much, if not more, a national unit as South Africa, or Australia, or Canada; therefore, if it is possible for these conspicuously heterogeneous groups to be treated as self-governing nations, why may not Ireland, then, a more homogeneous group, be so treated? This proposition is not new, it is not surprising; it is, indeed, a suggestion obvious to all but those who have been in the habit of thinking of the Irish as undependable, inferior, subsidiary.

The Irish Dominion League has not stopped there. It proceeds to analyze what should be the form of government in the self-governing Dominion of Ireland. And here the constructive statesmanship of the League shows itself. The *Statesman* asks quite frankly, why the parliamentary government of England should be slavishly copied, since its counterpart in the Dominions and other parts of the world, is far from satisfactory? They propose, rather, that for Ireland there should be one general legislature, to deal with taxes, police, and other universal civil affairs. Concurrent with this, there should be departments to concern themselves with affairs of business, or industry—the every-day activities of the people. They base their plan, as did Æ, upon the successful experiment of the Council of Agriculture and its Boards of Agriculture, and Technical Instruction, which Sir



Horace Plunkett made under the ægis of Unionist support. These methods, as we have already pointed out, only increased Ireland's prosperity, and failed to cope with the other factors of the situation, nevertheless, the method of self-government by local committees and specialized boards was proved to be very practicable; they gave a suggestion for the self-government of Ireland that should meet her needs. To recapitulate, they would, in place of a second house of parliament, have a number of councils, like the Council of Agriculture, to represent various interests. These county councils would be sub-divided to deal with local administration; these expert committees would send representatives to general councils of local government—agriculture or trade. As a preliminary to this it would be necessary to plan a redistribution of local government, in which the purely arbitrary county divisions would be replaced by regional areas, within which a real community life exists. The end to be pursued, they reiterate, is "one supreme national assembly concerned with general interests—justice, taxation, education, and apportioning revenue and reserving direct control over the policy of departments which affect equally all citizens as citizens; and beneath it other councils, representative of classes and special interests, controlling the policy and administration of the departments concerned with their work. Under such a system the elastic machinery of government would become increasingly the vehicle of the national will." Herein lies the potentiality of the scheme: it is to be not merely a slavish copying of a plan which suits, or which once suited, England or Canada; instead it is a frank analysis of the problems of the government there and elsewhere plus a comprehension of Irish needs, and the evolution of a plan to meet them.

The real value of their program showed itself in the criticism they advanced against the proposed solution offered by the *London Times*. This plan of the Times was put forward with the intent of initiating discussion that should agitate for some definite and generous modification of the Home Rule Bill of 1914 which with time had become inadequate to the situation. The *Times* plan provided for two legislatures in Ireland, one for the North, to include Ulster, and one for the South; each with a responsible executive, and with full powers of legislation, including that of taxation within its own boundaries; an All-Ireland Parliament, to be created by the states, yet endowing itself with such powers as the states should permit, each state retaining a veto over the legislation, which would concern matters affecting the whole island, the regulation of post-office, telegraphs, telephones, borrowing of money, imposing and collecting of all taxes, all customs dues and excise. Certain powers would be reserved for the Imperial government; a veto would be exercised through a non-political Lord Lieutenant; the Imperial Parliament, to which Irish delegates should be sent, to control the policy of foreign affairs, defense, coinage, copyright; contributions to be made by the All-Ireland Parliament to defense and debt, but the Imperial Government to continue to levy

and collect taxes until the All-Ireland Parliament should take control.

The protest of the *Statesman* was that the Leaguer's conception of government could not recognize a rigid constitution imposed from without; that the people of Ireland must have absolute sovereignty over institutions set up in Ireland. They protested, in the second place, against the invitation to be invested with forms of representative government which were "visibly suffering paralysis in Great Britain." They objected to a legislature which allowed self-government only theoretically, and asked for "two kinds of representative assemblies running concurrently, with their spheres of influence well defined; one to be elected by counties and towns to deal with affairs of general interest—taxation, justice, education, the duties and rights of individual citizens as citizens; other bodies to be elected by the people engaged in particular occupations, to control the policy of state institutions created to foster particular interests." In the third place, they claimed that to allow either state the absolute veto on all legislation of the All-Ireland Parliament would be to secure the ascendancy of Ulster. In answer to this contingency they said, "We are willing to make concessions, but are not willing to set them over us as dictators, safeguards for majorities seem to be as reasonable as safeguards for minorities. We are willing to allow veto in certain matters, but not the determination of the life and death of powers of the Central Parliament. We ask that when the Central Parliament is set up it have the full powers of a Dominion Parliament." "Lastly," said they, "we do not want representation in Westminster. We have no desire to interfere with English business, nor do we desire English business to interfere with ours."

The Leaguer's theory in regard to Ulster had been consistent, namely, that questions affecting the post-office, education, justice, taxation were matters of general interest, shared equally by everybody, and, therefore, in regard to them, there was no Ulster question; such matters of universal application could be settled in a general parliament. They had maintained further that an agricultural council, made up of agricultural representatives from all parts of Ireland, would have common interests, and that the same would be true of the manufacturers' and fishermen's councils. Thus, they felt that Ulster had no interests apart from the interests of all of Ireland. By the same process of reasoning they ignored the long-cherished religious differences between Ulster and the South of Ireland, for it had been proved by the experience of the Boards of Agriculture and Technical Instruction that the religious differences of the Catholic and Protestant farmers soon fell into the background in their common industrial problems. They argued, therefore, that the prerequisite to eliminating the Ulster "bogey" is not the creation of it into a separate state, but the abolition of artificial political divisions, which, after all, are visible mainly on paper.

The debate went on calmly and with seasoned, reasoned patience until the military dictatorship of Lord French was in full swing. Then the *Statesman* be-

came very frank and applied its principles with some sharpness, yet never in any uncontrolled fashion, for, they claimed, it was their main concern, not merely to denounce the evil, but to discover a remedy for it. The remedy they would reveal by showing the underlying cause. This they conceived to be that the government did not have on its side the moral sense of the community, that instead of ruling by the will of the people, it ruled or attempted to rule by an army of occupation with the following result: "To-day a policeman is shot down by some assassin's hand; tomorrow a sentry shoots down a hesitant motor driver; now soldiers are killed in Fermoy, and their arms removed; on the morrow soldiers pillage the same town and are unrestrained." No one is able to find one criminal, and therefore the community is punished by a regime which would not for a moment be tolerated by white people in any other portion of the British Empire. The Leaguers pointed out that the English were ignoring the very principles for which they had themselves once contended, and that, by such illegal means, they were expecting to win Ireland to the acceptance of English dominance. They deplored the result in Ireland because they feared that contempt for English law would degenerate into contempt for all law, and that, if disorder continued, this generation of people would submit to no government since they "were becoming a prey to a temper which cuts at the very roots of our civilization." Meanwhile the execution of the leaders of Sinn Fein resulted in the conversion of multitudes to Sinn Fein; the suppression of a newspaper for advertising the sale of bonds of the Irish Republic, inspired the selling out of the whole issue; and the number of those who are prepared to accept no political status less than that of sovereign independence was indefinitely increased.

In the midst of this riot of lawlessness, three days, in fact, after the attempted assassination of Lord French, Lloyd George (on December 22, 1919) outlined the plan of the Government for modifying the bill of 1914, thus fulfilling the promise to Ulster that some amendment should be made to guarantee to her her rights within Home Rule. This proposition was embodied, with few modifications, in the bill which was laid before Parliament on February 27, 1920. The bill resembles the *Times* plan in providing for two legislatures elected by proportional representation, the one, however, with a membership of fifty-two, governing a restricted, approximately homogeneous Ulster; the other, with a membership of one hundred twenty-eight, representing the rest of Ireland. These legislatures are to have powers of local government comparable with that of the states within the United States. The Government plans a Council of forty (twenty from each state), which is to serve between the sections as a committee for consultation. This Council may assume such powers as the state legislatures may agree to delegate to it, so that it may be possible by the agreement of these two bodies for the Council ultimately to become, by the gradual transfer of the whole of their powers, a United Parliament for Ireland—provided, always, that it does not infringe

upon the Imperial powers. The Imperial Parliament, to which Ireland shall send forty-two members, shall retain jurisdiction in peace and war, foreign affairs, defense, trade, coinage, customs, excise and income taxes. A change shall be made in the administration of finances; instead of the annual subsidies, Ireland shall receive the income from land annuities, and each state shall be granted a gift of £1,000,000 with which to inaugurate its government. Ireland's contribution to the Imperial treasury shall be estimated on the present basis, namely, from the £41,430,000 income from Ireland shall be deducted £23,500,000 which is the present estimate of all expenses in Ireland. This will leave a balance of £18,000,000 annual contribution to the British treasury. On this basis, which is to be readjusted from time to time, by a Joint Exchequer Board, the Irish are to retain for their own expenses all the moneys received from taxation after the lump sum is paid to the British Parliament.

The *Statesman* responds to this not merely with a reiteration of principles, with the accompanying assertion that the scheme has no value because it is unreal, "a paper constitution drafted for an imaginary country," and with a condemnation that it gives to the English Parliament the control of all vital national Irish affairs, customs and excise, income taxes and external trade; but the criticism contains charges of insincerity on the part of Lloyd George. It claims that the man who recognized that the action of the Irish people at the beginning of the war was "not due to the waywardness of the Irish temperament, not to a natural passion for tumults and uprisings, not to a desire to flout the laws and disrupt the Empire, but the malign policy pursued by the British War Office," cannot, in honesty, repudiate that understanding of the situation by offering to them to-day a plan which might have been acceptable in 1886. Instead, when the meager powers which the Council of Ireland might exercise are contingent upon the assent of the Ulster legislature, it is quite clear, in the words of Sir Horace Plunkett, that Ulster, or, more correctly, Belfast, is made the "mandatory of Ireland without responsibility." Their conclusion, then, stands, "Ireland is tired, and the world is fast becoming tired, of the perpetual dictatorship of Sir Edward Carson."

In the *American Journal of Psychology* for October, 1919 (Vol. XXX, No. 4), Prof. Harry Elmer Barnes contributes a lengthy paper upon "Psychology and History: Some Reasons for Predicting Their More Active Co-operation in the Future." The writer expresses the hope that an application to the interpretation of history will be made of the recently discovered importance of instructive and unconscious factors in psychic motives and impulses. He suggests such interpretation of the important personages of American history, such as Washington, Jefferson, Monroe, Jackson, Douglas, Lincoln, Stevens, Roosevelt, Bryan and Wilson. In the field of religious history he believes that this method will be a great aid in clearing up many perplexing problems. "Not only are the external and conscious aspects of culture handed down by education and other agencies, but also a vastly greater and more effective body of psychic motives and impulses are preserved in the realm of instincts and the unconscious."



## Course in General History from the Sociologists' Standpoint

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At the Richmond meeting of the American Sociological Society in 1918, a committee was appointed on the teaching of sociology and kindred subjects in the public and high schools. This committee immediately took up the whole problem of social science teaching, including sociology, economics, history and civics; it being impossible to make an intelligent recommendation with regard to sociology and its place in the curriculum without a thorough study not only of its relation to all the other social studies, but also of their place in the entire secondary curriculum. The report of this committee was presented at the Chicago meeting in December, 1919, and is to be found in the 1919 Year Book of the Society, and also in the April, 1920, issue of the *School Review*.

Early in the course of their investigations, this committee discovered other committees at work upon the same problem. Perhaps the most important of these is a committee representing the American Historical Association, since the curriculum that has been in use for the past twenty years was formulated by that society.

As to the main outlines of the social science part of the secondary curriculum, these two committees are in substantial agreement, although they use a slightly different nomenclature. The program they recommend is as follows:

Grade IX. A general elementary introduction to social science.

Grade X. European history.

Grade XI. American history.

Grade XII. Civics, sociology and economics.

Both of these committees are represented on a social studies sub-committee of the N. E. A. At the Cleveland meeting of this sub-committee, one of the questions that came to the fore was the contents of the tenth grade history course. In the discussion of this problem the representatives of the history people and the representatives of the sociology group developed two quite divergent points of view. It is the purpose of this paper to present the point of view of the sociologist, with the reasons for their position.

With regard to the point at issue, the report of our committee reads as follows:

"The tenth grade history course should consist of an outline survey of social evolution. It should include an account of prehistoric primitive life, after the manner of Breasted's 'Ancient Times.' It should emphasize the economic and social sides, trace the development of fundamental ideals and institutions, and reveal the solidarity of modern nations."

This position, it will be observed, calls for a survey of general history, a return to which the historians are apparently quite definitely opposed to. They propose to devote the tenth year to an intensive study of modern European history from about 1648. Their

reasons are, among others, that the field of general history is in their opinion too vast to be covered with anything like adequacy in one year. They also regard ancient history as too remote from the practical interests of modern children to make it worthy of a required place in the curriculum.

The sociologists have two reasons for desiring a brief, general survey of the entire range of history, both of which reasons are expressed in the paragraph quoted. They desire, first, to develop the concept of social evolution, and, second, to emphasize "fundamental ideals and institutions."

As for the first, it would appear that one of the most essential purposes of history teaching is to impart what might be called the historic perspective. By historic perspective we mean the ability to discern which social institutions are obsolescent and which are adolescent. It would be a superficial observer, indeed, who could not distinguish between persons who are growing aged, and in some cases senile, and will soon move off the stage, and the young persons who have not yet arrived at maturity, but may confidently be expected to make further growth, and eventually to dominate the situation. And yet the world is full of people who are apparently unable to distinguish between the institutions that are passing away and the institutions that are coming on. The chief actors in any historic period may be classified by this test. For example, during our Civil War times, and just before, there were certain leaders, some of them even in the North, who did not discern that slavery and states' rights were obsolescent institutions, while the principle of federalism was adolescent. The men of the Revolutionary and Constitutional periods may be differentiated in the same way. And there are many conspicuous leaders of contemporary life, including some of our senators, who are apparently blind to the corresponding tendencies to-day. They are stubbornly fighting for the maintenance of principles that are long past their prime, and that are destined to be superseded. Such persons are obstructionists; they do vast harm. Is it not one of the deepest tragedies of life to devote the energies of one's little once to obstructing the very reforms that are on the docket during the age in which one's lot happens to be cast?

At the Metropolitan Art Museum in New York there is a very wonderful piece of statuary by Rodin. It is entitled: *The Hand of God*. The pedestal is a block of rough-hewn marble about a cubic yard in dimension. Out of the top of it there is raised a large hand, the shape of which is suggestive of massive power rather than deftness or speed. In the up-turned palm are two human figures, male and female. The posture in which they lie together is not that of love; it is suggestive, rather, of immaturity, indeed of even prenatal immaturity, although the figures

themselves are quite adult. This effect is heightened by the unfinished chiseling; the forms, though finely polished, are left blended into the hand, as if they were in process of vegetating out of it. By these remarkable devices the artist has contrived to suggest both immaturity and measureless potentiality. Unfinished in the hand of God!

It is the purpose of history teaching to show each rising generation what those social enterprises are that still lie unfinished in the hand of God, and in the completion of which it is their destiny to co-operate. Especially in the public schools of a democracy history teaching can have no more fundamental aim, since reaction or progress depends upon the power of the public mind to make this discrimination.

The sociologists do not believe that this can be achieved by any brief survey of recent European history. The period is too short. Everything is too recent. The struggles going on lack relationship. Some sense of perspective and consciousness of movement could be developed, it is true, but nothing adequate. We believe a bird's-eye view, not only of the whole range of human history, but including prehistoric social evolution as well, is necessary to this end. This would acquaint the student with those institutions that have disappeared long, long ago. He would learn about the origin of institutions, slavery, for example, the recent disappearance of which he would also be permitted to witness. He would perceive, with due reverence it is hoped, the antiquity of certain important institutions, such as the family; and he would come to understand how recent and experimental as yet are some of the institutions to which we pin our faith so religiously. From this standpoint he would be much better prepared, we contend, to appraise the tendencies of his own times. For there certainly are contemporaneous institutions that need appraisal.

Historians well realize that every age is subject to its own peculiar obsessions. By social suggestion certain ideals and activities tend to dominate a historic situation to the exclusion of other counterbalancing interests. Thus each age becomes apparently incapable of extricating itself from its own obsessions, just because it is immersed in the stream of its own tendencies, and so lacks bases of comparison. This is quite as true of our own time as of any other. Especially is this the case with respect to some of the new movements of modern life. Most conspicuous among these are democracy's excessive emphasis upon individualism, our current blindness to the costs of material progress, and the cult of change whereby we are in danger of forgetting the good old maxim to "Prove all things, and hold fast that which is good."

Moreover, the very recency of the movements that have given us some of the best things of modern life tends to leave the impression upon our minds that nothing is of much value unless it is of recent origin. Accordingly our age is inclined to discard every piece of social furniture from which the varnish has lost its shine. The result is a very dangerous under-valua-

tion of some of the most fundamental things in human life. This is one of the great dangers of the period in which we live, and the exclusive emphasis upon recent modern history adds fuel to the flame. We sociologists are of the opinion that such teaching is itself a symptom of the age's disease, and that it tends to aggravate the malady. It is precisely to furnish a criterion for the appraisal of such current obsessions that we desire to develop in the rising generation the concept of social evolution. We believe that only by so doing can we escape the dangerous aberrations of our own times; and we are quite unwilling to miss the opportunity afforded by the tenth grade history course in our public schools.

Our reference to fundamental ideals and institutions suggests what those values are which we fear the present age is most likely to miss to its own serious discomfiture. We have in mind such institutions as the family, the church, the legal system, property, the moral code, and the like. We have in mind such ideals as obedience, thoroughness, self-restraint, economy, domestic fidelity, and reverence. These ideals and institutions are, of course, fundamental to social order; upon them the success of modern democracy and internationalism depends, and we believe their force in the modern world would be greatly augmented by a general appreciation of their long, toilsome development, of the sacrifices that have been suffered in their behalf, and of the contributions they have already made. We are anxious, therefore, that the rising generation should be familiar with the contribution of the ancient Hebrews to these ethical, social and religious ideals upon which modern civilization is based. We desire them to be familiar, likewise, with two things that originated in ancient Greece, namely, that spirit of free, fearless inquiry upon which modern science is founded, and that artistic appreciation, without which in modern life no permanently successful democracy can be built. We want them to know how Rome, and before her Egypt and Babylon, forged the substance of political orderliness out of blood and iron, and hammered it slowly into shape on the anvil of empire. They will then be much better able to appreciate the necessity, even in a democracy, for obedience, and for subordination, compulsory if need be, of the individual wish to the general welfare. We desire them to be familiar not only with Greece, Israel, Rome and the empires that preceded them, but also with the indefinitely long millenniums of social evolution which were necessary to prepare the foundation for these early civilizations. We think that will help them to understand what Bagehot meant when he talked about the necessity of a "legal fibre."

In short, we believe that the progress of the next few hundred years will depend upon the proper appreciation and utilization of those very ethical, aesthetic, intellectual and political ideals that had their origin in ancient Israel, Greece and Rome, and that are so much in danger of under-emphasis by a study of recent and contemporaneous life only. We believe that if young people are familiar with the struggles

through which these principles have passed, and the long periods through which the hopes involved in them have been deferred, they will more fully recognize their worth in our own modern life. It is precisely for this reason that we object to the exclusive emphasis upon contemporaneous and recent history, and urge instead due consideration of the more remote past.

Among the topics which have been proposed by historians for the tenth-grade course are the following:

Topic I. Introductory survey of world progress to eighteenth century.

Topic II. The rise of autocratic governments and their predominance in the early eighteenth century.

Topic III. Growing importance of commerce and industry in the early eighteenth century, and their effects.

Topic IV. The awakening and world relations of the states of Europe.

Topic V. The industrial revolution in England and its consequences.

Topic VI. The French Revolution and its political consequences to 1815.

Topic VII. The spread of the economic revolution to the continent and the struggle against reaction, 1815-1848.

Topic VIII. The growth of nationality and its effects upon Europe.

Topic IX. The penetration of Asia and Africa and its resultant problems, 1870-1914.

Topic X. The internal struggle between advancing democracy and autocracy, 1870-1914.

Topic XI. Imperialism and the World War.

Topic XII. Democracy since the outbreak of the war, and its problems.

There appears to be a growing disposition on the part of the sociologists to suggest some fundamental modifications of this outline. Our objections to it arise from the same principles and point of view that lead us to desire general history instead of modern history only for the tenth grade course.

We regard the subject matter of this outline as too narrow in its scope. Judging from the outline, and especially from the subdivisions of it, which are omitted here, the emphasis in this proposed course would be very largely upon the political side, with some attention to the economic. The other aspects of modern civilization are relegated to a position so inferior that one might almost say they are omitted. It is these omissions to which we object, and for the reasons now to be stated.

We object to the concept of the state implicit in this outline. The state and society are not identical. That notion of the state is quite natural to kings with their characteristic notions of social control. But it is quite out of harmony with democratic theories. For democracy the state is only an organ of society, the executive agent of public opinion, so to speak. What the people unite in thinking and desiring is the essential thing. Under an autocracy the ruling class would study history to find out how the state works. But in

a democracy the sovereign people study history to learn what public opinion ought to approve. To devote attention too largely to political institutions is to divert attention from the really worthwhile substance of modern life. The effect would be too much like that of a science course composed almost exclusively of mathematics. Mathematics is only the tool of science, and no appreciation of concrete natural science would be developed. It is not the political mill, but the grist that a rich modern life ought to be bringing to the mill, that young citizens need to learn about.

Furthermore, to study the struggle for political democracy during the last two centuries and a half is almost the same as to study the rise of modern individualism. Such a course would have to be taught with very great skill and insight indeed, if it did not have the effect of justifying excessive individualism, while failing at the same time to produce a due appreciation of social control and the subordination of the individual to society. Such a course would tend almost inevitably, we think, to aid and abet the excessive individualism of the times, which history teaching ought instead to be one of the chief means of counteracting.

The only other aspect of modern life which is accorded any considerable space in the outline is the economic. We object to the economic theory of history which seems to be implicit in this arrangement. Sociologists have definitely reacted from that theory. Not that we deny the truth in it, of course, but that we regard it as only a fraction of the truth. Especially do we object to the materialistic philosophy of life and society which it tends to imply. We think one of the diseases of modern life is this materialistic philosophy; and we desire history to be taught to the rising generation in such a way as to counteract rather than to aggravate it. We believe that a nation's life consisteth not in the abundance of things which it possesseth; and we are anxious to impart more spiritual and social conceptions to the rising generation, so that the democracy of the future will set up not wealth but welfare as the aim of its institutions.

There is still another reason why we think the political history of the last two hundred years is overstressed in this outline. That reason is that the struggle for political democracy is practically won. Autocracy in the political field is now a thing of the past. The history of this struggle is interesting, and its lessons important; but it is not necessary to teach it as if we were preparing the oncoming citizenry to win an uncompleted fight. What foresighted educators should aspire to do is to teach it in such a way that the lessons drawn from it will prepare our children to finish that which still lies uncompleted in the hand of God.

To the present writer it seems perfectly clear that the next generation or two will be involved in struggles for the following objectives:

- (1) For an international federation;
- (2) For industrial democracy; and
- (3) For cultural democracy.



As for the first of these, recent European history should be taught in such a way as to show the growth of the principle of federation. The objections that have been urged against it, the way those objections have been met in the past, and the limitations of national sovereignty involved in the principle, should be carefully developed in the pupil's mind. The causal bearing of modern communication and transportation upon the developing need for international co-operation should also be developed. The growth of international relations covered in Topic IX of the above outline is more important than the space allotted to it would indicate.

As for the second, there are certain details of the struggle for political democracy that are extremely pertinent to the struggle for industrial democracy; while others are entirely irrelevant. Wars and diplomatic juggling can be passed over with a few swift strokes. Large amounts of detail are unnecessary. But the causal significance of industrial changes are not by any means irrelevant. Neither are the ideals implicit in both political and industrial democracy. The struggle for industrial democracy is imminent. In fact, it is upon us already. There is nothing more important for young people to study than the historic movements leading up to it. It is here, if anywhere, that young citizens should be prepared to discriminate between principles that are adolescent and those that are obsolescent. For this reason we think the industrial is unduly sacrificed to the political aspects of recent history in this outline.

As for cultural democracy, the cloud in the west is as yet scarcely larger than a man's hand; nevertheless, it should not require a very learned insight into social philosophy and historical development to render its significance plain. The world is in the very act of discovering that political democracy cannot be made to succeed except on the basis of industrial democracy. In precisely the same way it will presently discover that neither political nor industrial democracy can be made to work successfully without a democracy of culture.

There can be no social homogeneity among a free people without a liberal distribution of culture. Nothing but the intelligence and morality of individual citizens can prevent liberty from degenerating into license. The individual efficiency and self-direction upon which industrial democracy must rest can be generated only by the liberal education of the masses. Just to the degree in which compulsion is dispensed with in social control, just to that degree the enlightened conscientiousness of individuals must take its place. If opportunities are to be open to all, then all must be equipped with the knowledge and skill necessary to avail themselves of those opportunities. If industry is to be organized in such a way as to give the masses of the people surplus time and income, those cultural wants must be developed which will enable them to make good use of both. Otherwise leisure and luxury will unite in cursing them.

In other words, if modern democracy is to be a real success, art, research, recreation, morality, religion,

and the home must all perform their normal functions. Their normal functions they never can perform except as their worth to individuals and to society is appreciated by the social mind. Accordingly, if we educators read aright the blueprints of the social structure we are building, we shall teach adolescent boys and girls the joy of life there is to be derived from art in its various forms, the personal pleasure there is in the free, unprejudiced pursuit of knowledge, and the contribution such pursuit has made to social evolution; we shall wish them to understand how nations have risen and fallen by reason of their devotion to, or disregard of, the fundamental moral code; we shall desire them to understand how religion has functioned as a motive in life, and how it can be geared to the best ideals of social progress; and we shall require them to know whether it was in the growing or in the decadent stages of the great civilizations, that family life was unsound and unstable.

When one studies the history of education, he gathers the impression that civilization depends upon the educators. When one pursues the history of ethics, one is impressed with the idea that the ethical standards of a people are their most fundamental interests. When one surveys the evolution of religion, one is inclined to feel that religion is the dominant factor in social evolution. When one studies industrial evolution, he naturally gravitates to the economic theory of history. When one busies himself with the history of philosophical thought and of free, scientific research, one tends to the assumption that wars and diplomacy may be ignored, and social progress explained entirely by the history of the intellectual class. And when one turns to the fields of art and literature, one is inclined to the conclusion that the geniuses in this field are the real builders of civilization. Each of these views is, of course, fractional. The truth is in all of them combined. By the same token the success of modern civilization will depend upon balancing the ration. Upon an exclusive diet of neither schooling, morality, religion, industry, research, art nor politics can modern man nourish his life and be healthy, but upon all of them combined in due proportion. But if society is to be nourished upon a balanced ration of all the cultural interests, then a balanced appetite must be cultivated in the minds of those who are just unfolding into adulthood.

For this reason the history of the last two-hundred-fifty years should be enriched by supplementing political and economic history with the history of music, literature, and architecture, with an account of the rise of the scientific method and its achievements, with a survey of moral and religious developments, with an account of changes in domestic relations; in short, with a history of ideals and institutions. These cultural interests must not be relegated to a few paragraphs of fine print at the close of the chapter, nor to occasional paragraphs sandwiched into the main text. They are fully as important strands in the fabric as the political; and should be given adequate consideration.



The argument for the incorporation of these topics into the subject matter of modern history is necessarily an argument for prefacing modern history itself with an adequate survey of the earlier periods. For, after all, these great cultural interests root back into the past in an even more significant way than do the political and economic interests. Art and scientific research go back to Greece, with their rootage in the earlier civilizations. Morality and religion lead us back through the medieval period to Israel. The monogamous family is a very ancient institution, indeed. In fact, all the ideals, arts, and institutions, upon appreciation of which a true democracy of culture depends, have a long and honorable history; and their adequate appreciation is hardly possible without some familiarity with that history.

It will be objected that to put all this material into a history course for tenth-grade children would make it so heavy and packed with details as to be utterly impossible. To this objection, Professor Ellwood, as a member of the sociological committee, writes this comment: "I have to acknowledge the difficulty which the historians see of working out such a course, but I believe it is up to them to do this thing sooner or later." In other words, what ought to be done can be done. If this is the kind of a course that ought to be given, we must and can find some way of overcoming the difficulties.

It is altogether probable that the difficulties are chiefly pedagogical, and can be solved by a more intelligent pedagogy. For there is a pedagogy involved in the selection of materials of instruction as well as in the method of presentation. We are inclined to the opinion that historians in selecting the content for high school courses have been too much under the influence of college and university traditions. There the courses are often outlined with a view to furnishing the data for independent judgments, and acquainting specialists with the methods of original research. These aims necessitate accurate knowledge of a great mass of detail. A sort of legitimate fetish is accordingly made of facts, exact facts, quantities of facts. This method is too often at fault even in college teaching; it is increasingly at fault when carried down into secondary education. What seem to us the fundamental pedagogical principles determining the selection of the tenth-grade history material will now be set forth.

In the first place, it is a principle of psychology that we discern massive wholes at first and then proceed later, if occasion demands, to the analysis of those "great big, blooming, buzzing confusions" into their constituent details. It often happens that the occasion for such analysis never arises. In such cases, it would be a pedagogical blunder to attempt the analysis at all. The massive wholes are what should be taught. In illustration of this psychological principle, the teaching of reading may be referred to. Forty years ago teachers used to begin by teaching children their letters. After they had laboriously taught them their letters in unrelated isolation, they began teaching them to put those letters

together into words. Now we reverse the process. We begin by teaching them words as a whole, being careful to select words for which they are conscious of having some need. Later, we analyze the words into their component letters. The result is very much more rapid progress in the teaching of reading. But in teaching history to high school children we still commit the same pedagogical blunder that an older generation of teachers committed in teaching primary children to read. We give them the details in advance of the large wholes of which the details are parts. As a result what to the teacher may be significant facts are likely to appear to the child as wholly unrelated facts, and therefore a sheer burden to his memory. And too often the material never is organized in such a way as to put the details together into significant wholes.

What we ought to teach is the massive wholes. As a matter of fact, the massive whole which the pupil confronts at the very outset is the entire past of the human race. It is this which is to be reduced from vagueness to constituent order by the history study of the tenth year. The first step is to break it up into certain large sub-divisions, namely, the great outstanding movements of history. Each of these may be further divided and sub-divided, as the objective may require. Without some such procedure as this the pupil is liable never to acquire at all the real sense of historic relation, sequence and perspective. These divisions and sub-divisions can then be sketched in a few sweeping curves; and rendered concrete by the selection of typical details, few or many, as the exigencies of the case may dictate. Nor will this appear like a plea for the mere memorizing of generalizations to those who are familiar with the pedagogy of the type study. In this way the great political movements of the last two hundred and fifty years can be taught in a surprisingly short time. For the children's uses, and for the uses of ordinary citizenship, nothing will be lost by the omission of a great many details. A paragraph or two should take care of the Franco-Prussian episode, for instance; and a few pages at most should suffice for the Napoleonic wars. By such a procedure as this, the rise of modern political democracy can be sufficiently accounted for, and time reserved for similar outlined sketches of the other phases of civilization.

The objection to this method on the part of the historians is forestalled by the fact that it has already been adopted in the case of other important high school subjects. General science and unified mathematics have apparently come to stay, undoubtedly because the pedagogical principle of the massive whole, upon which they are based, is inherently sound. In each case the "great, big, blooming, buzzing confusion" which the pupil attacks at the outset is the whole subject. Step by step it is divided and sub-divided. Each generalization is illustrated. Details are selected or rejected with reference to the objectives in mind. By this procedure the pupils are given some general knowledge of science and mathematics, and the foundation laid for further detailed studies.

The new community civics now being advocated for the ninth grade will be an application of the same principle, inasmuch as it is really intended to be a general elementary social science. The deep-seated prejudice of university professors against general history is ill-founded. General history is as pedagogically sound as general science, and unified mathematics; the difficulty with the old general history was in the way the material was selected and organized. So far as content and organization are concerned the new general history here advocated is not to be confused at all with the old; it is an entirely different thing.

Just at this point a parenthesis may be thrown in without breaking into the argument. A general history course in the tenth grade will give logical unity and natural progression to the whole social science program, which an intensive study of recent modern history would entirely disrupt. The program for the junior high school includes geography, United States history in the eighth grade (on a basis of elementary general history in the grades), and community civics or general social science in the ninth year. This is a complete cycle. The senior high school program offers another complete, and somewhat similar, cycle, on a higher level. The first cycle furnishes the logical introduction to the second. World history in the tenth grade constitutes a perfectly logical preparation for American history in the eleventh. But an intensive study of recent European history does not. The background for both American and European history would be lacking. There would be a certain parallelism between the two courses; so much so as to make it practically immaterial which should be taken first. The sequence would be lost. This is a consideration of great practical importance to all competent administrators.

Having shifted from many specific facts to a few large general facts, the second problem in the pedagogy of history teaching is the principle upon which these generalizations are to be selected. That principle is social utility. The generalizations should be unquestionably sound and useful ones, in the judgment of mature and competent persons. They must also appeal to the children themselves as obviously useful, quite as obviously useful as words are to primary children; for utility is the keynote of the doctrine of interest.

What now are the most useful generalizations of history? Obviously, the lessons of human experience, especially those that have a direct bearing upon the unsolved problems immediately confronting us.

It follows, therefore, that history teaching, whatever it may be in graduate seminars, in the tenth grade is frankly propaganda, in the interests of the common good. As a matter of fact, the pedagogical problem involved in the content of history courses boils down to the question of aim. "What are the schools up to, any way?" (H. G. Wells). When that question is once clearly answered the rest all falls into order. In graduate seminars the aim of history teaching is practice in the technique of research, and a mastery of

detailed facts sufficient to warrant original generalizations. But that is not the aim in the tenth grade; there the aim is to familiarize children with some generalizations universally agreed upon, especially such as appear to furnish guidance in the solution of contemporaneous problems.

Accordingly we select the great culminations for good or ill in human experience, we sketch in outline the great movements leading up to them, and then we select a few picturable details that will give life to the movement and pith to the moral, casting the rest aside. By that method we can impart the standpoint of social evolution, trace the development of fundamental ideals and institutions, and do it in a year. The fault of the old general history was not in its universal scope, but in its university pedagogy.

The question as to what the lessons are that should be taught by history will be mentioned here not to answer it, but only to show that the problem has not been overlooked. In general it may be said that that will have to be left to competent men and women, such as professional historians and sociologists, for instance! It may be added, however, that the selection of subject-matter with reference to ascertained social needs promises to be reduced to an exact science in the not distant future; a hope not altogether unfounded when one considers the achievements that pedagogical science has actually made during the past decade.

In the third place, it is questionable whether the traditional history content is intelligently selected with reference to the instinctive interests of early adolescence. Most boys of that age are interested in battles, no doubt; but that is no reason why the interest should be stimulated. They are interested in sex also; too much interested; so we divert attention from it as much as possible. Similarly, if we are ever to rid the world of war psychology we must starve and sublimate the war interest. As for the political side: diplomatic intrigues, constitutions, assemblies, and the sequence of campaigns are not of the most vital concern to young persons. Is it not reasonable to assume that they are instinctively quite as much interested in the achievements of artists and scholars, in the rise and fall of moral codes, in the history of their own religion, in the different types of family life, in the progress of moral reforms, and in the history of education? No doubt it would be quite as easy to elicit from tenth-grade children enthusiastic appreciation of Horace Mann, Ludwig van Beethoven, Pasteur, Zachariah Brockway, Francis Asbury, or Niel Dow, as to interest them in Metternich, Bonaparte, Machiavelli, John Hay, or Thomas Jefferson.

The sociologists think there is no reasonable doubt that history is made needlessly hard by being made perniciously fractional. If we continue to limit the content to the political fraction of history, we limit the amount we can teach, of course, because we appeal to a fraction only of the child's interests; but if we expand the content to include all the cultural interests, we increase the amount of history we can suc-

ceed in teaching, because we widen the range of its appeal.

To summarize the pedagogy of history teaching: teach the words first, and the letters will take care of themselves; frankly organize everything about the great lessons of history, then the details will become significant; appeal to a wider range of the children's natural interests by widening the scope of the subject.

If these pedagogical principles are adhered to the content outlined in the first part of this paper can be successfully covered in one year, and the objectives set forth above can be achieved.

Such is the view of tenth-grade history teaching held by the committee of the Sociological Society. It is hereby presented to the educational public for purposes of discussion.

## The Psychological vs. the Chronological Order in the Teaching of History

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The recent reports of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship are a most encouraging and helpful product of expert opinion. The course of studies outlined appears to be a distinct improvement upon any curriculum heretofore prepared for the teaching of history in the chronological order. The sincerity with which the committee has invited criticisms and suggestions from all quarters is particularly satisfying, and it is that appeal which moves a student of psychology and education to make a few comments.

There has been a diversity of opinion as regards the nature of the changes to be made—the functions to be improved—in the teaching of history. In practice, the teaching of history has led primarily to the development of information concerning events, chronologically presented, in the development of a country, usually one's own. The course includes studies of the original inhabitants, their mode of living, early settlements, growth, wars, policies, governmental, social, economic enterprises, gradually leading to a discussion of modern life. Better teaching has given emphasis to the abilities of making inferences from historical events or characters to be applied to present-day problems and everyday conduct. The development of the capacity to criticize and evaluate historical evidence has been urged. In general, then, most emphasis has been placed on history as a means of acquiring certain intellectual habits—bits of information chronologically or logically arranged, with hopes of the development of certain mental capacities—judgment, correlation, inference, reasoning, a historical sense or habit of historical attack upon present issues. Quite often the first purpose is fulfilled, the pupils do acquire verbal information, but readers of this journal will be well enough acquainted with experimental education to hold no belief in a special potency of history to train mental processes in general.

Historians have not, all of them, overlooked the possibilities of training the emotions or feelings. In fact, the aim of many is in particular to cultivate certain emotional responses or attitudes—such as patriotism, love of one's flag and of one's country, reverence for institutions, ideals and the nation's lead-

ers, anger at treachery, deceit, disrespect, in fact, the cultivation of courage, honesty, loyalty, pride, patriotism and other emotional responses to the appropriate features of our present or past environment. Quite often, indeed, the accuracy of history as past record has been sacrificed to serve the supposed advantages of emotional or sentimental responses. That our country life has been the most heroic and saintly of all, that our soldiers are the bravest, our rulers the wisest and most just, our enemies cruel, unworthy, and cowardly, would doubtless be the emotional conviction of most of our grammar school pupils.

In the development of direct motor habits, habits of effective and desirable conduct in the home, the class-room, on the playground, in group activities, in the affairs of community and life generally, the contributions of history are often supposed to function, but usually as indirect or secondary results of training for intellectual and emotional habits. Knowledge and ideals, especially when accompanied by emotional fervor, are expected to provide appropriate conduct. It is unnecessary to discuss the unlikelihood that such training will insure actual overt behavior in this easy manner, because teachers are well enough acquainted with the convictions of educators and psychologists that we learn to do by doing. It should be equally well realized that we learn to feel by feeling, we learn to think by thinking, we learn to reproduce facts by reproducing them. The laws of habit formation are the same whether the habits formed are intellectual or emotional or muscular. Merely acquiring information does not insure desirable emotional or motor action. Correct emotional responses do not insure correct overt behavior. An "ideal" may be a state of mind merely, with or without the desirable emotion or motor reactions. The fundamental fact is this—we learn that reaction that we give birth to. The habits we form are precisely the habits we exercise. History must be evaluated on the basis of the actual training it provides, without assumptions of indirect adjustments to life, formal training of powers, or any subtle influence of ideas upon action.

Most educators would agree that history at its best should further the development of the child as a



whole. We seek to enable him to think, feel and act correctly in the presence of features of his everyday environment. Few would insist on teaching history merely for history's sake, and most would agree that history is taught to develop habits of effectually thinking, feeling and acting with reference to the people, objects, laws, practices, institutions, ideals—in a word to the important features of our complicated environment. While this is often enough admitted by writers of history texts, the contents of school books still show actually that a unified (almost without exception, a chronologically unified) mass of information is the chief aim of teaching. No one has yet ventured far from the life-line of chronological unity, and those who have ventured a few steps seem to do so moving backwards with eyes still on the trusty rope. Early ventures have been made and the present offering of the committee is something of a venture, but in chronological order is placed all trust. There have been some who believe in learning to swim by swimming. That chronological order is a good "safety first" device is admitted, but somehow many people relying on it have not learned to swim satisfactorily. It has been suggested that we pay less attention to the life-line and more attention to the child and the pool.<sup>1</sup>

We will expect the child thus to learn to swim by actually developing favorable ideas, emotions, and muscular co-ordinations while in real water. Whatever past experiences may be brought profitably to bear upon his learning—his mental, emotional or motor reactions—will be welcomed.

It has been suggested that the point of departure in teaching history should be some feature of the present environment—those features which are at the time actually faced by the student. History should add its bit to supplement the contributions of civics, athletics, arithmetic, reading, geography, and all other functions in securing the approved reactions of thought, feeling and action to whatever features of life the child is then confronting. Before history can be effectively taught, we must appreciate the things with which the child is dealing, and the nature of his activities with them.

History should relate to the activities and interests of the child at the time. In the first grades, for example, the instinctive equipment of the child is incomplete. This is directly reflected in behavior. Activities are largely of an individual sort. Taking care of individual property, toys, clothes, books, the familiar activities of the home, caring for cat or hat or flowers, adjusting to the social conditions of the school, buying articles, making change, getting on with others at play or work, learning obedience—without awareness of the labors for food or shelter, or a feeling of social responsibilities, or an interest in matters relating to the material or mating instincts, or in political or economic forces involved in operations of trolleys or milk-wagons, division of labor, re-

ligion, the mayor or alderman, etc. At each stage there are great limitations to the capacity for being interested in or understanding the content of history. One cannot assume the instinctive interests of the adult or of the fifth grader. One cannot assume a reaction to represented state of affairs from history which are essentially different from the interests and activities of real life. It is especially necessary to appreciate the intellectual limitations. The child of seven can barely tell how many fingers he has on both hands, or adequately interpret a simple picture, or tie a bow knot. He barely knows morning from afternoon; has but little sense of orientation in week; cannot understand with any significance "a month ago," and can just name the days of the week. Spatial relations still offer great difficulty for comprehension—he can just copy a diamond when looking at it. He cannot understand clearly east, west or a mile. Not until he is nine can he tell the day of the week, month and the year or name the months correctly. At seven he can just understand what you mean by "difference" (the difference between a stone and an egg), and not until eight does he understand "sameness" as applied to two things ("in what way are iron and silver alike?"), and not until twelve can he tell wherein wool, cotton and leather are alike. Not until eight years can he describe simple forms of approved social reasons such as "What is the thing to do when you have broken something which does not belong to you?" Not until twelve can he define or illustrate abstract words, "pity, revenge, charity, envy, justice," and not until sixteen can he make any fine distinction, e.g., between laziness and idleness, evolution and revolution.

The significance of these facts is that our "concepts" or notions of logical, temporal, spatial and abstract relations come after experience with actual life and not before it. The child does not exactly understand such abstractions as "pity, charity, justice," until twelve years, but he may do many acts of justice and mercy, and feel emotional reactions to needs for such acts, at six or seven. Children may read or use the words, but effective ideals are built up through activity in real life. Generally speaking, verbal descriptions of the ways in which swimming was performed in past times, becomes intelligible, enjoyable and applicable to real life, only when the child is learning or has learned to swim.

The teaching of history then must take account of limitations in interests, activities and intellectual capacities. Our suggestion is that the point of departure should be determined by these interests and capacities. History should produce whatever it may that will assist the child to understand, and to properly feel and act in his present activities. The teacher of history should find her function in situations involving emotions and action. The social relations of the schoolroom afford a starting-point. The ideals of fairness, honesty, loyalty, obedience, neatness are to be built up in the course of passing and collecting papers, taking care of one's books, erasers, pencils, returning borrowed articles, moving about

<sup>1</sup> See E. L. Thorndike, "Education, a First Book," 1912. David Snedden, *School and Society*, Vol. 5, p. 271. R. W. Hatch, article in this issue.



quietly, respecting by silence the right of another to recite, respecting by kindly emotions the winning of a prize by another, abiding by majority rule, by actual experience in case of close votes, just as understanding muscular habits of control, and courage in the water are obtained only through trying to swim. Situations, within the intellectual capacity and interests of children, may be created by the teacher to duplicate as nearly as may be the situations that life will eventually present. Forms of student group activities, the debating society, groups for play or excursions or collecting objects, group activities in planning a picnic, or a school performance, various forms of self-government involving elections, committee judgments and the like, afford situations to which historical data may well be applied. The function of history in supplementing reactions to affairs in the home or community need not, of course, be neglected. In sum, history should be taught to function in the development of information, emotions and overt reactions which we desire the child to exercise in meeting the situations which everyday life in and out of school will present. In so far as the teaching fails to fall within the intellectual, emotional and actual range of the learner, its function will be but slight.

The customary order of teaching history has been that of logical or chronological arrangement. The causes of the selection are perhaps two—a chronological or systematic arrangement probably is the most effective framework upon which the data of the trained historian can be arranged. To have a framework of names, data and events is a convenient mnemonic system to which new information can be most readily tacked. But this does not mean that building up such a framework is the most effective method of learning in the first place, when it is certainly impossible for a child to construct an orderly notion of temporal or logical relations. As new data for the history scholar are attached to his present structure of information, so the new data for the child must be related to his fund of information—which is not temporal or logical grouping, but rather unsystematic bits of information about and interest in a few hundred childish objects and acts. When one already knows the history of the things, laws, and institutions of a nation, a forward chronological arrangement of it may be most serviceable, but when one knows but a few things, rules and institutions of the present, the method of building up a knowledge of the past may be quite different.

The chronological order of teaching history may have at times been encouraged by the recapitulation theory—or cultural epoch theory—of mental growth, a doctrine now rather generally discredited in theory, but considerably employed in practice. That the child is early more interested in the lives, implements and institutions of our primitive ancestors, is a notion reflected in a chronological arrangement of history. Children of seven are as much or more interested in automobiles as they are in a primitive cart, in a gun as in a bow and arrow, in a street car as in a horse, in a toy electric boat as in a canoe. They are more

interested, likely, in the home dress and work of their grandmother's childhood than they are in their material ancestry removed by one hundred generations. What we need to know is—what historical interests really are greatest and what ones will most usefully assist in present development.

It may be found that the way of wisdom is to accept no general principle of order of arrangement of historical data. The reverse chronological order (frequently suggested heretofore) is in a measure defensible. It may be that a forward order is often desirable, whereas a reverse order may meet other cases more effectively. The suggestion here offered is this: We should begin with present interests and abilities. We need not employ the same order in all cases. We should select, from the past experiences of the nation or race, those data which may be brought to bear upon the present situation. What we shall then have is historical data related to—the kitchen range, the piano, the use of money, the street cars, eating out of dishes, using pencils and paper, reading books, building a kite, having a leader for "sides" in "dare-base," obeying the leader, abiding by majority rule, saluting the flag, a holiday for Washington's birthday, the Fourth of July, having policemen, putting men in prison, etc., etc. The history teacher will know the child's thinking, feeling and acting capacities and bring the fruits of past experience to nourish the present development in the projects of actual life.

Projects will, of course, vary with age, local surroundings and current events, but diligent search will provide enough to compose textbooks for the grades, including projects of interest to children within one country. Much will be left to wise guidance by the teacher. What we need is a series of problems or projects or real situations in which history may function. We need also the skill and application of experts in selecting the historical data, arranging it in the best order of presentation, suggesting plans for creating a need of history on the part of the student to meet the problems and activities of daily life. We need the co-operative study of those who best understand child life concretely, and those who best know history, and most of all those who know both.

It will doubtless be said that such teaching will be scattered, uncorrelated; there will be no grasp of history as such—it won't be history at all. Perhaps so. It may not be history as the history scholar files his data, but an object is to train boys and girls to live, not merely to recite history. The important matters of using historical sources, learning to look up the history connected with a present problem, or state of affairs, learning to interpret historical data, can be thoroughly learned only by actually doing it. Moreover, training in emotional control, keeping one's temper, "light not heat," arousing healthful enthusiasm over current issues, etc., and the development of conduct in conducting debates and discussions, abiding by majority rule, are ends to be attained most surely by meeting live issues.

It has been already pointed out that the develop-

ment of any meaningful notion of the chronological aspects of history is unlikely in the lower grades. Dates may be learned, but little notion of time relations will be secured. Nor does the schedule of procedure suggested by the committee seem favorable to it. That the Indians ruled here at some vague past time, will be learned in the first grades. The gap between that time and the present will not be filled until several years later. For the pupils entering the fifth grade, something will be known of the United States up to 1783, something will be known of the present, but the interim is a rather meaningless gap. As suggested earlier, knowledge of history as a temporal structure seems unimportant in the grades. In the upper grades, the temporal structure may well serve a purpose, and can then quickly be secured by systematic review in direct chronological order.

The suggested course of study, embracing chronological divisions for each grade, must result in giving different treatment to each period. In the third grade "the fundamental problems" connected with the discovery of our continent simply cannot be understood. The more important religious, economic and social questions cannot be considered in the lower grades. What the child learns in the fourth grade about Englishmen becoming Americans, will be of practically no service in interpreting conditions of "national activities" in the ninth (even if remembered) for the reason that the intellectual capacities of the fourth grades are inadequate to deal with the matters later discussed.

Should we not take into consideration the large and important groups who do not continue school until the tenth grade where the "modern world" is the main concern of history teaching? Nearly 50 per cent. of the population are unable, because of mental insufficiency, to successfully complete the work of the high school, as a matter of fact less than 50 per cent. of those who begin finish. A certain percentage find their limit at different grades. The actual number dropping out of course is much greater than the number who are able mentally to do the work. The chronological method is certainly poorly adapted to these. It is not urged, of course, that the curriculum should be organized in the interests of those who drop out, but since they are a considerable body, it should be arranged to serve them if it may at no expense to the others.

The course of study now proposed by the committee seems to be a good compromise between those who will cling to the classic or scholarly function of history as a beautifully classified system of facts, and the appeal of educators who are more interested in training children to live. The course of study report frequently declares that the history of primitive life, or of early settlements or of United States within certain dates will be related to everyday life, but in practice the teaching of the facts within a certain chronological unit is what will chiefly be secured. What is really wanted is training to meet the conditions of life and the use of those aspects of man's past experience which are significant, and which will function favorably in securing such an adjustment. It will

not be an easy task to reorganize the presentation of historical data in this way, but such a venture is pre-eminently "up to" the consideration of a committee of national representatives. It is not urged or believed that this will mean teaching of less history. In all likelihood more history will be learned. There is no urge for less direct learning of the memorizing type—there may be a demand (what is desired more is a felt need) for the mastery of more historical facts by direct habituation. The need of learning to correctly think, act and feel in the life situations of the young citizen is the motive for learning to search, or to interpret and to learn historical data. Let us not scan the life of the child to discover how a chronological system of historical facts can be somehow taught, but search the past of man for material that will serve the present.

The *American Historical Review* for April (Vol. XXV, No. 3) contains an unusually interesting and valuable collection of articles, documents and book reviews. An extended account is given of the Cleveland meeting of the American Historical Association. Lawrence B. Packard contributes a study showing the origin of the alliance between France and Russia. "The Purchase of Alaska" is discussed by Frank A. Golder, who shows that the Russian American Company was approaching bankruptcy and was anxious to sell out. "The Miners' Laws of Colorado" are described by Thomas M. Marshall. Miss Irene A. Wright has edited and translated an important series of Spanish documents relating to the Spanish policy toward Virginia, 1606-1612. The editor, Doctor Jameson, contributes an account of the formation and purpose of the American Council of Learned Societies, and also an item relating to the imprisonment during the war of Professors Fredericq and Pirenne. The reviews of new books possess their usual high standards of scholarship.

The annual Raleigh Lecture before the British Academy for 1919 was delivered by Viscount Bryce upon the subject, "World History," and it has recently been published by the Oxford University Press (New York). The lecturer fittingly took his subject and title from the principal literary contribution of Sir Walter Raleigh, for whom the lectureship has been named. After briefly reviewing early attempts to write a general history of the world, Viscount Bryce suggests a special and definite line which a narrative of world history might follow. This line "would be an account of the Process and the Forces whereby races, tribes, nations, and states have been, or are being, drawn together into one common life commensurate with the earth which they inhabit. We see the Process almost complete." Three epochs are noted in the process: The prehistoric period of similar habits and ideas; the early historic period in which the advance from savagery to civilization has been accompanied by decided divergences among peoples and races; and the recent age, "there is a convergence of interests, a closer contact of groups and a greater reciprocal influence exercised by each group upon the other." The three greatest forces which have brought about the change from one epoch to another have been conquest, commerce, and religion.

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# Character and Value of Standardized Tests in History<sup>1</sup>

BY EARLE UNDERWOOD RUGG, OAK PARK HIGH SCHOOL, OAK PARK, ILLINOIS.

## INTRODUCTION.

The quantitative movement in such school subjects as spelling, arithmetic, algebra, and handwriting has turned attention to the need for objective devices in the field of history. Complexity of subject-matter and differences in teacher-judgment make it desirable to construct devices that will enable one to score and mark various types of history exercises with more precision than is possible under the present examination system. The purpose of this article is (1) to acquaint the teacher of history with the existing test material; (2) to point out in some detail the general features of the tests; (3) to describe some of their defects; and (4) to discuss the value of the movement.

## EXISTING TESTS IN THE FIELD.

At present there are eleven tests that aim to measure some phase of history. With few exceptions they have not been well standardized. Those that are merely in a tentative state are included, however, to indicate the general tendencies of the measuring movement in this subject. The writer presents in summary form the salient features of the eleven tests in the field (see pages 234-235). Only four of the authors of the above-mentioned tests have published their investigations.

## GENERAL FEATURES.

A majority of the tests in history have made use primarily of facts or information of a historical nature; the assumption is that the readiness with which students answer factual questions is a measure of a thing called historical ability. The tests are, from the point of view of psychology, purely associational. For example, Sackett asks the student to name a writer, painter, orator, general, etc., noted in ancient history; then again he asks the significance of such terms as "The Battle of Tours," or "The Age of Pericles." Bell requires the pupil to give the important event occurring in 1861, 1789, 1620, 1492, etc., to state such things as the important principle of each political party, and to name the great epochs or movements in American history. Harlan, Rayner, and Starch, in a different type called completion tests, demand that the student insert in spaces purposely left blank the correct responses to certain historical information. The material in these exercises is so arranged that the insertion of responses in these blanks forms a historical narrative. Davis has devised another type different from the two described above. He suggests several possible responses and

asks the student to underline the answer that he deems to be correct; i.e., "The Mayflower was a hall, chapel, hotel, plant, ship." In general all of these thus far mentioned involve only elementary associational facts.

The tests of Buckingham, Van Wagenan, Barr, and Rugg are more complicated, for in these the pupil is called upon to react to more intricate mental processes such as thought, reasoning, historical inference, and judgment. Buckingham made the first step beyond the testing of facts when he worked out an investigation which showed rather a marked correlation between the ability to think and the ability to remember in history.<sup>2</sup> To ascertain this he gave a series of thought questions of which the following is a sample:

"For many years after the coming of Columbus, explorers wandered about in the forests of the new world, and paddled their canoes up and down the great rivers without thinking very seriously of colonization. What were they thinking about and what were they trying to do?"

Another sample of the thought questions is taken from the Van Wagenan, series B.

"A hundred years ago it took a letter several days to go from New York to Boston; to-day it takes only a few hours. Why do you think it took letters so much longer to go from New York to Boston one hundred years ago than now?"

Dr. Van Wagenan has introduced the judgment factor by including in his tests a series on "character judgment." In this type the student's conception of a personage is obtained by quoting a historic passage depicting some act of this person and then asking the student to underline out of eight or nine suggested adjectives three which best describe the character of that act. Thus, he quotes the rudeness of Secretary Stanton in tearing up a note from President Johnson presented by Mrs. Clay, wife of an imprisoned Confederate general. The pupil underscores three of the following that best describe Stanton's action: rude, callous, generous, courteous, tactful, cautious, thoughtful, sympathetic, insolent, and considerate. Barr in his diagnostic tests attempts to measure such things as historical comprehension, inference, and constructive imagination. His plan is similar to Van Wagenan's in that he quotes a historical passage and asks responses in the form of questions. Preliminary results indicate the possibility of these diagnostic tests, but, as Mr. Barr asserts, the material must be carefully revised and given to a much larger group before actual predictions can be made. Similarly, the writer has made a preliminary study of historical judgment. He tested chronological, causal, and critical

<sup>1</sup> Paper reported to history section at University of Chicago Conference of Secondary Schools, May, 1919, and to social science section at High School Conference of Illinois, November, 1919. Reprinted from the *School Review*, XXVII, No. 10, December, 1919.

<sup>2</sup> *School and Society*, V (April 14, 1917), 443-48.



judgment. A tabulation of the results obtained from one hundred and sixteen students in Oak Park High School indicates the feasibility of measuring this factor. These tests give various classes of events such as social, political, and military. The pupil is asked to number them 1, 2, 3, etc., in the order in which they appear from the point of view of time. Again in critical judgment he is asked to mark various types of historical books which will indicate the readiness with which he can distinguish texts, source accounts, biography, etc. Causal judgment seeks to discover the ability of the pupil to pick out the response of several suggested that relates best to the causative element. The problem is to show experimentally that history trains the judgment. The tests in this group are illustrations of the fact that the tendency is to attempt measurement of the more intricate historical outcomes. Summarizing, then, we find two distinct types of tests in the field of history: (1) those that make the ability to answer factual questions the primary end, and (2) those that are concerned with the measurement of the higher mental processes, namely, thought, reasoning, imagination, inference, judgment.

#### GENERAL CRITICISMS OF EXISTING TESTS.

1. Turning to an examination of the results secured from giving these factual tests in classroom work one finds that pupils do not retain a great deal of historical information.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, the assumption that the readiness with which pupils answer historical questions measures historical ability should be, at least, qualified. In fact, the writer doubts the validity of the assumption because of its primary emphasis upon mere memory.<sup>4</sup> The dominant aim should be not to memorize historical content, but to give the child as wide an experience with the world as possible. Doctor Bobbitt in his book on "The Curriculum" points out that we must not hold the child for detailed facts. He urges that the child be permitted to absorb through wide reading as varied and vicarious an experience as is possible to obtain. Doctor Horn, another curriculum maker, corroborates this point of view in support of the theory of social utility. This is his criterion on which to construct the course of study. It means that the course must be devised to meet the needs of the child, either in future school life or as an adult. Considered from this aspect, much of the content included in the factual tests is obsolete. This standard of social utility would also cast doubt upon the validity of a theory where facts are held to be the chief end. Even more conclusive are the actual experimental investigations reported by some of the authors of these tests. Thus, Bell found that 668 high school pupils retained only 33 per cent. of the historical information called for in his test.

<sup>3</sup> This assertion is made after the following tests were tried out in my own classes in the Oak Park High School—Bell, Sackett, Starch, Harlan, and Davis.

<sup>4</sup> G. C. Myers, "Delayed Recall in History," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (May, 1917), 275.

Five hundred and fifty pupils in the three upper grades of the elementary school could answer only 16 per cent. of the same set of questions. It should be noted, however, that detailed facts, such as those found in the tests discussed, are not in themselves of value. These facts must be the means of arriving at an understanding of the structure of society. Advocates of the social studies to-day desire that the child obtain an appreciation and understanding of his environment. They demand that the world be made socially intelligible to him. Historical facts should be but the media of arriving at this end.

2. Many of the tests are faulty because they do not embrace content vital to the course of study. Some of these authors have shown unfamiliarity with the recent tendencies in this field in that they have included content that is not taught at present. Progressive teachers are agreed that the present must be stressed to a far higher degree than it has been in past years. Thus ancient history as a required subject appears to be doomed.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, the tendency is now that the child should not be held for the detailed facts in a text. Hence, details such as are found in the above tests should be omitted. Such questions as, Who was Mithridates? What was the date of the invasion of the Saracens into Spain? or When was the New Haven colony founded? are isolated facts that fail to aid the child in understanding modern society.

However, to be constructive in respect to vital content we must ask, What historical material is vital to the course of study? and What shall be our criterion for determining its value? First, content is vital to the course of study that gives the child an appreciation of the structure of modern society. This does not mean that all history must be necessarily recent. An appreciation of this age is obtained partly from a study of the development of things in the past. One must become conscious of the evolution of civilization—that society is an organism and is growing. But content to be included must have definite relationship to things of the present time. Secondly, our criterion should be the social needs of the child either in school or as an adult. The course should represent the most important of the needs of the community selected from the habits, ideals, skills, information, etc., found by an analysis of the community.<sup>6</sup> The importance, frequency of occurrence, or the cruciality of such needs will determine largely what material is desirable. For example, an analysis of political platforms of parties has brought to light recurring problems such as the tariff, finance, interstate commerce, and immigration. Certainly these must be

<sup>5</sup> See report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, May and June, 1919. This committee recommends four years of social studies, two of which shall be history. In the tenth year modern history shall be given, at least one semester of which shall be from 1789 to date. The other year shall be American history in its broader sense, to come in the eleventh year.

<sup>6</sup> The writer is indebted to Professor Horn for this theory of social utility.

known in order that the child understand things about him to-day. On the other hand, knowledge of how to restore respiration in case of drowning is an example of including content on the basis of cruciality. Future tests are concerned with this problem because such exercises must measure content that is of fundamental importance to the child.

3. A majority of the exercises do not test the basic aims or outcomes of history. True it is that we have not as yet shown experimentally what are valid aims. Tabulation of some sixty books, articles, and courses of study, as well as two question blank investigations which discuss aims of the subject, may be grouped as follows: (1) facts; (2) training for citizenship; (3) training certain powers such as imagination and judgment; (4) inculcating within the child a sense of patriotism; (5) broadening the pupil's point of view; (6) training in seeing causal relationship. Moreover, training in sound habits of study should be included. It is obvious that these are opinions which in some instances could be called aims of the other school subjects. They are indicative of what history teachers have in mind as objectives. The writer accepts them tentatively as the basis of tangible outcomes—at least, until we can prove them. We must, however, have objective evidence on the questions whether history does train the judgment, whether it creates sound habits of study, and whether it broadens one's point of view. It is also his conviction that in presenting various phases of the course one must keep constantly in mind some particular aim or purpose. Only in this way can one tell with any degree of accuracy what results are being achieved. The entire methodology hinges on this point. Construction of standardized tests—examinations—for each aim is the only objective means of ascertaining exactly how many of the above or of other asserted aims are practicable. It seems that few of the writers of the tests under review were conscious of this fundamental problem. We have seen that several are built upon the assumption that ability to answer historical information portrays historical ability. I have already commented upon the invalidity of this theory. Also it has been pointed out that several have attempted to measure other outcomes aside from facts. The problem before those interested in the testing movement in this field is to demonstrate what are the objectives of historical instruction.<sup>7</sup> Then will quantitative evidence prove to us what we should aim to do in teaching this subject.

4. Another defect of these exercises is that a majority of them include historical material covering the entire course, i.e., in American history from 1492 to the present. This makes the administration of the tests before the end of the school year impossible. Doctor Davis has sought to remedy this trouble by

using material only on one period. He takes the colonial period. It seems to me that this is very fundamental. All testing to be valuable must be done at the crucial time. The teacher is concerned week by week, month by month, with the fact of how much of the course is grasped by the students. In fact, examinations are usually drawn up to test comprehension of a given epoch or movement. Periodic tests are but examinations that are standardized; hence the desirability of obtaining objective evidence as to the degree that a given period is understood. This plan is preferable because one must mark the pupils for home reports periodically, and because it aids in determining pupil and class difficulties. Of course, one must also devise a test covering the entire course. This latter is essential for the final review.

5. Most of these exercises discussed here are so brief from the point of view of content that where available or known to the teacher of history for any length of time it would be almost inevitable that such material would be stressed in presenting the work day by day. It is obvious that results obtained in this manner would be valueless. To forestall this possibility each test must be designed so that it will include several sheets of material. For example, they can be labelled series A, B, C, etc. Question 1 on series A can be made to compare in type and in difficulty with question 1 on the other series. Similarly each succeeding question will involve material of the same degree of difficulty, series by series. Such a plan will make the exercise a test of ability, not an "exhibition" performance.

6. Several of the exercises under review may be criticized from the point of view of organization. This fault is particularly evident in the completion tests. They, in the main, are concerned merely with whether the pupil can insert battles, dates, events, personages, and place locations in the blank spaces provided. In short, they stress facts as ends in themselves, but we have pointed out that facts should be used as means to an end. Moreover, in the completion exercises guess-work is likely to creep in. Experimental investigation shows that students make a low percentage of correct associations with historical material involving time sequence and place location. Where these elements are mixed in with personages, political events, etc., the student cannot distinguish the type of response desired. Hence, it is essential that the organization as to type of answer required be clear-cut. For example, the blanks involving time sequence should be marked off distinctly from those involving battles, place location, political events, and social movements. One can still retain the narrative form for the test, but its organization is more easily grasped by the pupil by following the suggested plan.

7. These exercises have not been scored or graded in such a way that they comprise an accurate guide in marking the papers of the teacher of history. Her time is limited, and if she is to be urged to use such tests, the problem of scoring must be made simple and

<sup>7</sup> It should be noted that most of these investigations reported are given in such technical language that they are beyond the grasp of the history teacher not trained in statistical interpretation. On the contrary, these investigations should be reported in simple language.

## SUMMARY SHEET

NAME	TITLE	WHERE REPORTED	TYPE
1. Sackett, L. W. ....	"A Scale in Ancient History"	<i>Journal of Educational Psychology</i> , VIII (May, 1917), 284 ff.	Informational
2. Bell, J. C., and McCullum, D. F. ....	"A Study of Attainments of Pupils in United States History"	<i>Journal of Educational Psychology</i> , VIII (May, 1917), 257 ff.	Informational
3. Harlan, C. L. ....	<i>Tests for Information in American History (Series A)</i>	Write author, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.	Informational Completion
4. Starch, D. ....	<i>American History Test</i>	Write author, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.	Informational Completion
5. Buckingham, B. R. ....	"Correlation Between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember"	<i>School and Society</i> , V (April 14, 1917), 443-48.	Thought
6. Davis, S. B. ....	<i>Tests in United States History—Colonial Period</i>	Write author, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.	Informational—Colonial Period
7. Van Wagenan, M. J. ....	<i>Scales in United States History</i>	Write Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York, New York.	Informational Thought Character judgment
8. Raynor, W. H. ....	<i>American History Test</i>	Write Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.	Informational Completion
9. Barnard, A. F. ....	<i>Test in Roman History</i>	Write author, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.	Informational Completion
10. Barr, A. S. ....	<i>Diagnostic Tests in United States History</i>	Write author, at 19 S. LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.	Informational Thought Reasoning Judgment
11. Rugg, E. U. ....	<i>Tests for Historical Judgment</i>	Write author, Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Illinois.	Judgment

accurate. We know from various investigations that teachers vary widely on the question of grading papers accurately. These studies have shown how difficult it is for even the conscientious teacher to mark accurately. Particularly is it hard to do in the complex subjects like history where judgment is intricate and opinion almost bound to creep in. Familiarity with the theoretical distribution of pupil abilities according to the normal curve, or even the use of the best papers in the class as samples, will not enable one to determine exactly whether question 1 should receive the same percentage as succeeding questions. In fact, the probability is that some questions are much harder than others. Therefore, to grade with precision the teacher needs to know that a question is worth, three, five, or eight points because several hundreds or even thousands of pupils have answered it with that average in the past. It has been demonstrated in other school subjects that standardized tests can be constructed so that the

value of each question is known and is printed along beside the question.

On straight information questions it is relatively easy to assign scores or marks. However, with the more intricate questions where opinion and evidence on the point disagree, the response is infinitely more complicated. Here the score is likely to be only approximately accurate. For example, one would obtain many varying opinions from a class on the question, Why did the English colonial policy succeed while that of the French failed? where one merely asked for a brief written answer. The problem of ascertaining which of these answers is true is colored by many considerations. Most important of all is the problem of scoring various answers, assigning to each its proper credit. Therefore, I sought to avoid this difficulty in testing causal judgment by making a positive statement as to the causative element and then suggesting several responses indicative of possible effects. It should be noted that each of the ques-



## SUMMARY SHEET

KIND OF QUESTIONS	GENERAL COMMENT
1. Men-events, dates, battles, persons, map locations.	Not so valuable because it deals with content fast disappearing from required courses. Reported in too technical a manner.
2. Date-events, men-events, historical terms, political parties, division of history map study.	Most valuable of existing tests on old chronological history which has as its end salient facts of the traditional course. Good review work at the end of the year in the want of standardized exercises period by period. Should include more material in series form.
3. Personages, historical terms, events, places, hypothetical conclusions, causes and results.	Probably the best of the completion type. Organization clearer; some content should be omitted. Results unpublished though test is available by writing author.
4. Sixty-nine blanks into which pupils insert information similar to above.	Elementary content; rather poorly organized. Possesses value in that there are several series, precluding possible "boning up" for test. Investigation unpublished; tests may be obtained from author.
5. Memory questions used only to measure ability in history. Can develop rational memory demanding reasoning.	Elementary facts given in New York and Madison, Wisconsin, to prove relationship of ability to think and to remember in history. First to make use of thought. Results show rather marked correlation.
6. Pupil underlines correct answer of several suggested on fifty questions on colonial period.	Also is working on reading problem in relation to history. Important. Excellent in that it makes possible review on one period. Based upon Bagley's investigation of elementary history. Attempts to standardize questions. Still in preliminary stages.
7. Thirty-two sheets on these three types. Quotes a history passage and then asks questions.	Most elaborate investigation; Ph.D. thesis, Columbia. Performances of several thousand children tabulated. Tests available for use. First to make use of judgment. Possible objection of expense of so much material preventing their wide use.
8. Material similar in organization to Starch test. Based upon Bagley's analysis of elementary histories.	Question here based upon Bagley's investigation of school histories. Test available. Could find no report of an investigation by the author.
9. Detailed facts upon one period of Roman history.	Preliminary test on one period of ancient history. Not valuable because tendency is away from ancient history. It is doubtful if books used now include such details. Not at all standardized. Used by author in his classes.
10. Test for historical inference, selection of facts, causal relationships, imagination. Quotations and answers.	Very preliminary tests on 125 University of Chicago High School students to diagnose variously asserted historical abilities. Merely shows possibility of measuring some of the more complex outcomes. Author revising them.
11. Involves judgment of chronology, cause and effect, and ability to distinguish historical material.	Very preliminary tests for historical judgment given by writer to 116 Seniors in Oak Park High School. Results of the preliminary tests indicate that it is possible to test judgment. Tests will be carefully revised and given thorough tryout next spring. Writer intends to standardize questions so that percentages may be assigned each question.

tions had been scored by the pupils in a preliminary way to determine relative difficulty. With the arrangement outlined above, the pupil was asked to check the answer that he deemed showed the best causal relationship. For example:

The English colonial policy succeeded while the French policy failed because

1. The English were better farmers than the French.
2. The climate in the English colonies was better.
3. The natural resources were more suitable.
4. The English pursued a policy of permanent settlement.
5. The English government at home was better.

This checking plan of grading the more complex outcomes possesses value because it excludes varying responses difficult to grade correctly, and because it is possible to tabulate the answers more quickly and accurately. Such tabulation diagnoses pupil and class difficulties. It is, then, by using the above-

mentioned plan that the teacher will secure exact standards for grading papers. Moreover, she will be enabled to mark the papers more easily and in far less time than under the present system, thus cutting down the rather arduous paper work.

## VALUE OF THE TESTING MOVEMENT IN HISTORY.

In closing, the writer wishes to stress the value of these standardized exercises in the field of history. One must admit that there are obvious limitations to their use. Moreover, there will be many who say that we cannot measure such complex processes as those found in the study of history. However, it is the conviction of the writer that our judgment and grading of pupil reaction will, at least, be refined through the use of these tests. They are valuable, first, to check the basic aims and outcomes of this branch of the social sciences. It has been my contention throughout this article that a final statement of aims and outcomes will not be established until ex-

perimental evidence proves the temporary statement practicable. The wide disagreement, together with the vague commonplaces found in the articles on aims and outcomes of history, indicates that there is no real evidence yet to point to what the history teacher should strive to do or what the pupil should strive to attain. However, no teacher ought to be permitted to go through a course without being forced constantly to ponder at least, on such questions: Why should this subject be taught? Of what use is this bit of content? Does it function in the needs of the pupils? By what means can I discover whether it is of value? Attempts to answer these questions will unearth shortcomings and deficiencies. Then will the critical teacher seek some means to eliminate them. Tests will be found to be objective devices to check up valid aims and outcomes.

A second use of these devices is the improvement that they will bring to classroom instruction. As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, attention to shortcomings tends to cause their removal. But the mere realization that something is wrong, for example, that the pupils fail to grasp time sequence, is of no consequence unless the teacher has some objective means which will reveal these defects clearly. A tabulation of the performances of a class that has taken the test will show not only individual but also class difficulties.<sup>5</sup> It was by the method outlined in the footnote that the writer ascertained just what points in the tests under review in this article were hardest. It was shown that the classes had no clear conception of time sequence and of place geography. Knowing this, my classroom instruction was changed so that these points would receive especial attention. Moreover, it enabled me to diagnose the points of difficulty of the individual pupil. The work of the teacher should consist largely in showing students how to study. Still experiments in supervised study have demonstrated that many teachers fail in this part of their work. The reason commonly assigned is that the teacher, presumed to know correct habits of study, cannot introspect to the extent of being able to tell others how she herself studies. There are those, also, who cannot do it because they themselves have poor study habits. Trite phrases such as "fails to grasp subject" or "works irregularly" on report cards are of no value to the supervisor, principal, parent, or even the pupil himself in helping any plan that any of the above may wish to use in solving this fault. But to state clearly and in some detail concrete things to do as means of grasping a subject will help to eliminate the above phrases. Showing pupils how to study is the primary function of the teacher. Therefore, she should not be content until she has at her command every method, bit of technique, tool, and device that will enable her to

teach students how to study. Standardized history tests or examinations have their place in this connection.

To summarize their value, tests in the field of history will improve classroom instruction because they can be given and scored easily; they are objective, being based upon the performances of enough pupils to enable one to foretell the percentage of correct answers to each question; they reveal class and individual differences, not only aiding in shaping the review work to some definite end, but also being of service in showing pupils how to study. Moreover, when designed on the principle of social utility—i.e., to include only content which is of proved social worth to the child—they will tend to organize the course of study around the essential experiences.

#### SUMMARY.

This article has attempted to present considerations concerning (1) the existing tests in the field of history; (2) general criticisms of them; and (3) their value to the lay teacher of history. Such exercises are but a start toward the solution of the problem, for they are not well standardized as yet, nor are they organized around the vital content of the course. However, they are of value in that they point the way by showing us the method of attacking the problem and by indicating that such devices possess utility to the progressive teachers of history because such exercises enable one to test the aims and outcomes of this subject, and because they will aid in improving classroom instruction in the manner outlined above.

#### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The annual spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held at Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., May 7-8, 1920.

At the evening session, May 7, Prof. D. W. Johnson, of Columbia University, gave a lecture, illustrated with lantern slides, on "Territorial Problems of the Paris Peace Conference." Doctor Johnson was Chief of Division of Boundary Geography of the American Commission to Negotiate Peace. His lecture was exceedingly interesting and informing. A full abstract of it, to be printed in the 1920 Proceedings of the Association, will be a valuable contribution to historical knowledge.

At the morning session, May 8, the topic for discussion was "The Reorganization of History Teaching in the Schools." The discussion was opened by Dr. D. C. Knowlton, president of the association, and Dr. C. A. Coulomb, of the Philadelphia city schools. A general discussion ensued, with enough difference of opinion to indicate a lively interest in the subject.

The association was most hospitably entertained by Lafayette College, and more members than usual were present to enjoy the hospitality.

At the business meeting Dean Albert K. Heckel, of Lafayette College, was elected president of the association for the coming year. The new secretary-treasurer is Miss Nellie P. Ferry, 4818 Warrington Avenue, Philadelphia, Pa.

<sup>5</sup> By using cross-section paper one may tabulate results of a test quickly and accurately. Write student's name on horizontal lines at left of paper, the question at top, vertically. This will enable one to tell what an individual pupil has accomplished and also will reveal class difficulties.

# Department of Social Studies

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### THE PROJECT-PROBLEM AS A METHOD FOR TEACHING HISTORY.

BY R. W. HATCH, INSTRUCTOR IN CITIZENSHIP, HORACE MANN SCHOOL AND TEACHERS' COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship is reaching its final form. Before it becomes static, however, it may not be out of place to make certain observations which deal with the problem of method, rather than of content.

As a teacher of history for many years I have come to feel with increasing force that history is not doing for our pupils what the Committee of Seven said history should do. For instance, we read in that report under the caption of "Training for Citizenship," the following as objectives of history: "It is true that any subject which aids the pupil to think correctly, to be accurate and painstaking, which awakens his interest in books and gives him resources within himself, in reality fits him for good and useful citizenship." "History cultivates the judgment by leading the pupil to see the relation between cause and effect." "The power of gathering information is important, . . . but the power of using information is of greater importance." "A no less important result of history study is the training which pupils receive in the handling of books." "History is also helpful in developing the scientific habit of thought." "The thoughtful teacher of experience will say that these prime requisites of wholesome education may in some measure be cultivated; and that when opportunity for comparative work is given in the later years, historical-mindedness may be so developed as materially to influence the character and habits of the pupil."

"The thoughtful teacher of experience will say," in fact, is saying, that these objectives, splendid in themselves in training citizens, are not realized from the study of history as it is generally taught in our high schools to-day. Doctor Tuell raises this very question in the opening words of the preface to her helpful and forward-looking book, "The Study of Nations."<sup>1</sup> "History in the schools has recently been put on the defensive, challenged as a failure in

its civic functions. Its established theory in the minds of its critics crumbles for lack of definite social purpose."

In the tenth year of the proposed course of the committee we find: "The Modern World: World history since the middle of the seventeenth century with emphasis upon political, social and economic development, showing progress toward world democracy." It is in connection with this course that I wish to speak of an experiment in history teaching that we have been trying out at the Horace Mann School for Girls for the past year. It is a course in modern European history; and the class is in the last year of the Junior High School. We have taken as our objectives the citizenship concomitants of the Committee of Seven, as listed above, and our general method from John Dewey: "The true starting point of history is always some present-day situation." Realizing that if this method were followed the class would not have the customary chart and guide in the form of the chronologically arranged text, the instructor lined out at the start for his own guidance the main forces at work during the period he was developing. It was his hope to leave definite impressions of these forces, which he listed in his record book as follows: (1) The Industrial Revolution, (2) The Growth of Nationalism, (3) The Expansion of Europe, (4) The March of Democracy, (5) The New Europe. First came a quick review of the leading events of the eighteenth century, and these with dates were arranged in a chronological bird's-eye view chart, reserving space for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to be filled in as the work progressed. A civic note-book was kept by each member of the class, and this became the seed-bed of many of our projects. A special shelf was reserved for us in the library, and, in addition to these reference books, the class took the little paper, *Current Events*, and used freely newspapers, weeklies, magazines, and several of the standard general reference works and encyclopædias. Early in the year we organized in a democratic manner with chairman, secretary and activities committees determined by our needs. Then we pictured Europe as it was after the Congress of Vienna, and each student prepared a colored map of Europe in 1815.

With this as background we were ready to "hop off." The special method determined upon by the instructor was the problem-project, as advocated by Dr.

<sup>1</sup> "The Study of Nations: An Experiment in Social Education." Harriet E. Tuell, Ph.D., Head of Department of History, Somerville High School, Massachusetts. Riverside Educational Monographs.



Kilpatrick.<sup>2</sup> Now the project theory is still more or less in the ideal or theoretical stage, and it is not my contention that we live up to all its requirements or possibilities. We tried, however, in each case to get as large an amount of the essential four steps—"purposing, planning, execution and judgment"—as possible into each project, and the more we succeeded in doing this the better were our results."

The initial project required considerable "setting of the scenery" on the part of the instructor, but the one finally determined upon was this: "The progress of labor and how it affects us to-day." This is as the class worded it. They gave as their reasons for their particular selection their desire to "understand something of the causes of the dispute between labor and capital;" "the meaning of certain terms which they heard or came across in their reading," e.g., "collective bargaining," "open-shop," "injunction," "I. W. W.," "Bolshevism," etc., their natural desire to "comprehend the conversation at home," and to "understand the significance of the cartoons they saw in the newspapers and weeklies."

Their civic notebooks swelled with clippings on the labor problem; there was much open discussion in class; a cartoon was brought in each day, its significance explained and placed in the "Cartoon Corner." The teacher was surprised many times at their grasp of some of the points at issue, e.g., causes of the break-up of the industrial conference at Washington. On almost any day eight or ten different sources, other than the text, were resorted to by the class as a whole.

To be sure, this took time. I see by my record that we began this project on October 10 and finished it November 14. At the end of the work a committee was duly appointed to organize, in summary form, the material gathered in building up the project. This was mimeographed and each student was given a copy for her notebook. They called this their "irreducible minimum."

The next project entered an entirely different field, and one instructor approached with certain tremblings of spirit: "Why is Ireland demanding Home Rule?" We had hardly started out when someone observed that many people in Ireland didn't want Home Rule. So they reworded their project, a false plan, you see, and started in once more. We had not gone far when my fears were justified. Feeling ran high with some of the pupils and comments were made on both sides of the question in no uncertain tones—a real social situation. After one of these outbursts the instructor at the next meeting of the class took the occasion to read Franklin's plea for harmony at the Constitutional Convention. He made no comment or "preachment," but there was no question of its direct application. "Light, not heat," was placed upon our "Watch this spot!" board. The class rallied to the ideal; the social disapproval of the group was manifest whenever anyone broke out after that, and when we came to the end of the project they wished to carry

it further with a good debate. Throughout the developing of this project the teacher had in mind other things than fact content. He was after tolerance, courteous tone of voice, balanced judgment, and open-mindedness with convictions based on facts. One answer to his question began with this naive confession: "Although I am of Scotch-Presbyterian descent and naturally feel with the people of Ulster, I am nevertheless in favor of independence for Ireland." We finished this project just before the holidays. During these two weeks of vacation came the presentation of Lloyd-George's plan of Home Rule, and the attack on Lord French. When the class re-assembled I inquired how many had read anything on Ireland during the holidays. Thirty out of forty said they had done so; and twenty-six reported that on their own initiative they had cut out clippings for their civic notebooks. My Scotch-Presbyterian came to me at the end of the recitation and confided that in the light of the events of these two weeks she had changed her mind and was now a "Home Ruler." I did not find out whether this change was caused by "light" or "heat."

To show how the study of current events plus the notebooks form a seed-bed for future promising projects, I give the following: When the Prince of Wales visited New York the girls became quite interested, and many got glimpses of the "prince charming." I picked up the trail of the prince in their civic notebooks, and, biding my time, one day dropped this question: "Why did so many of you wish to keep the picture of this young fellow?" "Why, he is the Prince of Wales!" "What of it?" "That means he is going to be King of England some day." "Is that so very important?" "If course, he will have a lot of power and live in royal state." "How much power will he have?" The chorus, not quite so confident, "Oh, a lot." "As much as our President?" Chorus mixed and uncertain. And so they were led into deep water where they had to swim for it. There was an immediate desire to find out how much power the King of England actually has to-day. This led in its turn to a contrast with the President of the United States, and eventually that discussion led to a point by point comparison of the governments of the two countries. A large comparative chart, 15 x 30 inches, was drawn up by each member, and when the French elections came off a study of the French government was in order, and that in its turn was added to the chart. On a recent examination of these charts I found that several countries, e.g., Japan, Switzerland, Brazil, Spain, Italy, had been added to the others out of their own initiative.

Other projects which the class have worked out this year are: "What are the causes underlying the unrest in Russia?" "How was Switzerland able to maintain her neutrality during the world war?" In this last project a most interesting and natural discussion arose over the Swiss compulsory military system. Would it not be a good plan for the United States to adopt such a system? The class was fairly evenly divided, so each wing chose two champions, and the

<sup>2</sup> "The Project Method." Dr. Wm. H. Kilpatrick. *Teachers' College Record*, September, 1918.

debating committee has arranged a meeting for the near future.

One day while the Switzerland project was under discussion a visitor remarked at the end of the hour: "I came in a little late, and although I have listened intently for nearly forty minutes I do not know now whether this is a class in geography, history or civics." I could not help him out much in giving him the proper label, perchance "Social Science" would cover it, but asked in my turn if the project could be answered without some study of the geography, history and government of Switzerland. At least we felt that they were all grist to our mill; and this points out, by the way, a perfectly natural and not a dragged-in correlation.

Other worth-while projects have already been proposed by the class, and we expect to take them up before the end of the year—e.g.,

1. How did France become a Republic?
2. How did England become a Constitutional Monarchy?
3. How did Italy become something more than "a geographical expression"?
4. Why is Japan one of the five leading nations of the League?
5. Is Canada a self-governing state?
6. Why is Poland demanding the "ancient rights and privileges"?

Many such pertinent questions as the above which bear directly upon the social, political and economic phases of modern life, rise very naturally to the lips of pupils awake to present-day conditions. It is one of the chief duties of the teacher to stimulate those natural interests and then guide them intelligently. To be sure the teacher himself should understand very definitely what he is aiming at and where he is going. He should have so charted the course that at the end of the year's work the class would have "covered essentials," although in no page by page fashion.

Some will criticise such teaching as this by saying it is a "hit or miss" method; there will be "chronological confusion," and "no semblance of order in the assembling of historical data." At this point let me quote from an article which appeared in the *History Teacher's Magazine* for November, 1914, on "The Teaching of History in Secondary Schools," by Dr. David Snedden, now of Teachers' College: "The time has arrived, I am convinced, when all persons interested, on the one hand, in the better teaching of history, and on the other hand, in the better preparation for citizenship and the promotion of a common culture, shall face, in the light of modern knowledge the question of valid aims and methods in the teaching of this important subject. We shall, if necessary, forego any particular organization of the materials of our subject which seems to be inherent in it—for example, the chronological order in history."

Doctor Thorndike, speaking of the "logical versus the psychological" in history teaching, says: "It has, indeed, seemed indubitable to teachers as well as writers of textbooks that the student should begin where the country began. But what has seemed so

sure is very questionable. The pupil actually begins with knowledge of the present condition of his own environment plus a variable and chaotic acquaintance through talk and books, with facts located vaguely in other places and earlier times. Perhaps the story of the voyage of the parents of some pupils in the class should precede that of the voyage of Columbus."

"Chronological confusion" and "disordered historical data" come soon enough to the best pupils of the best regulated classes taught in the old formal method, witness the position of history at the bottom of the list in the College Entrance Board Examinations. Moreover, the chronological chart, referred to above, was devised to so arrange leading events and great movements that their proper relationship would be seen, just as the mosaic, built up piece by piece brings out at the end the completed figure.

It is also the opinion of educators that on the basis of "information" or "fact content," the sum total will be as great under this method, and will be so developed and assimilated as to be more ready for use and consequently better retained in memory. The summaries or "irreducible minimum" built up at the end of each project prevents the informational material from becoming scattered.

In order to hold the class to a definite purpose they were told at the beginning of the course that at the end of the year their principal, Dr. Henry C. Pearson, who has made in this connection several valuable suggestions, would set the examination covering the entire period from 1815 to the present. The instructor will have no hand in drawing up these questions. Doctor Pearson has been particularly interested in the "concomitants" that are incidental to the work. He is planning to adopt the project method next year with a group in his Senior High School who will take up the social and economic problems which confront our American democracy to-day.

Others object to this method on the grounds that it takes a great deal of time both in class and in preparation on the part of the teacher. Both these statements are undoubtedly true. The experiment has shown, however, that as the work progresses the class comes to work more speedily. They grow more accustomed in using their historical tools; and we find out quite frequently how a tool used in solving one project is employed again in helping to fashion others. For example, they understood the meaning of the term "economic boycott" in their study of the League of Nations, because they had used that term in the project on the progress of labor. It was a very interesting thing to note their adaptability in using these cross-reference tools.

Others are skeptical about the use of such a method as this with the "average public school pupil." I have taught in public schools for fifteen years, and have no fears on this particular point. The fact that in our cosmopolitan high schools the pupil body comes in contact more directly with a greater variety of outside interests would be a distinct advantage. The fact that such a method would necessitate adequately trained teachers is not a valid argument against the

method itself. This is an old complaint, and a real one, and our administrators are faced to-day, as never before, with the problem of securing properly trained teachers in the social studies field. Professor Parker make the statement that it will take four years of training in service in order to prepare teachers so they can handle the project method.

The writer is aware that there is little that is new in this particular approach. Others have pointed out the distinction between the "assimilative" and the "cold storage" methods in history teaching. This is simply one experiment where the project has been used as a basis in the developing of a particular period in history. As an experiment it is open to criticisms and welcomes them. After a year of careful observation of this method, it is my belief that the results justify the conclusion that as an educative process it is worth giving a wider application. It leads the pupils to purpose intelligently, and then guides them in planning and executing the particular project in hand. They find out how to get the information they need in the natural way, while the class-room discussions and debates develop independent judgment and historical-mindedness.

Contributions to the discussion of the report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship have considered many aspects of this difficult problem of arranging a satisfactory course in history and civics for the schools of the United States. It is the hope of the writer of this paper that the committee will not make its final report without giving consideration to the possibilities that lie in the adaptation of the project-problem as a basis for teaching history and the social, political and economic problems of our modern world.<sup>3</sup>

#### IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL STUDIES.

"The sober fact that democracy is now confronting the greatest crisis of its existence, and unless education can do something to foster it and render it successful, it must go under. . . . The only way out is through the development of more social and political intelligence in the masses; and the easiest way to develop such intelligence is through more social and political education in our schools. Social studies should be fundamental in the curricula of our schools from kindergarten to college, and should occupy not less than one-third of the student's time. By social studies, I mean those that are concerned with human relationships and conditions, such as the study of history, of government, of industry, of family and community life, of public health, of social organization and progress, and of social standards. Only through such social

studies becoming central in our whole scheme of education can the present amazing ignorance of rich and poor alike regarding social conditions and laws be overcome and adequate education for citizenship in a democracy be secure. This is the revolution which is needed to solve our political and social problems, and to lead us securely in the path of progress. . . . So far as I know, no school or college has as yet definitely accepted this educational revolution. Yet how we can have an efficient, intelligent democracy, capable of solving its own problems on any other condition, I fail to see."

This quotation is from an address by Dr. Charles A. Ellwood on "Education for Citizenship in a Democracy" before the recent Southern Sociological Congress in Washington. Doctor Ellwood believes that the aim of the committee—the more general introduction of social studies—is altogether too modest. What should be sought is a course of study in which the social studies should be made central and supreme. All others should be subordinated to them, and undertaken only as they contribute to this central purpose.

In this connection a pamphlet entitled, "History, the Supreme Subject in the Instruction of the Young," which has been written by Frederick J. Gould, leader of the moral education movement in England, is interesting. Mr. Gould assumes that the aim of education should be the service of the family and commonwealth, based on industry, inspired by history, and perpetually responsive to the claims of the whole circle of humanity. It is also assumed that the duty of service applies to all members of the community without exception. "History," he states, "understood in a broad, liberal and modern sense (which includes the study of present-day social, economic and political problems) can and should be treated as the supreme subject in the instruction of the young." The studies, exercises and activities which have figured as subjects in the curricula of the past can be grouped around and connected with history. The program which Mr. Gould maps out begins in the earliest years of the elementary schools, and continues on through high schools. It is even suggested that during kindergarten years some preliminary work can be done.

Dr. Ellwood and Mr. Gould are, of course, in substantial agreement. They have only used different names for similar ideas.

The need for education in social subjects has nowhere been revealed more clearly than in the Russia of to-day. Owing to the complete lack of any education in democracy the principles and ideals of autocracy have persisted, despite the elimination of the Czar and his supporters. The Bolsheviks of to-day, according to John Snargo, notwithstanding their origin in the more humble classes, are as thorough autocrats as was the former governing class. Thus the revolution which might have brought a new era of liberty to the country has so far failed in its purpose. The autocracy of one group, whatever its previous

<sup>3</sup> The above experiment in "The Adaptation of the Project as a Basis for Teaching Modern European History" will appear in the *Teachers' College Record* for May, 1920. The method of setting the project, the materials used, pupil charts and summaries, as well as typical answers to test questions, will there be given in fuller detail.



condition of servitude, is in no way superior to the autocracy of the Czar.

Russia's way out of her troubles—and our way, too—is through education in citizenship.

In an interesting paper at the Educational Congress conducted by the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Pennsylvania, Mr. C. H. Fisher, now connected with the State Department, called attention to the fact that it is the problems of democracy, rather than the separate social sciences, which should be studied in high schools. "I would prefer," he states, "to use the term 'social science' to include history, economics, sociology, political science, civics and social problems; and then disregarding these subjects as such, to select material from any of these sources that has a reasonable guarantee upon careful analysis of accomplishing the desirable social and psychological aims of education."

As far as high school is concerned the splitting up of the subject matter of the social sciences into various groups such as economics and sociology is in many respects unfortunate.

"It is during the high school years that the boy and girl become social beings. It is just at this time that many of them are ready to give themselves to a cause, to serve mankind, to sacrifice life itself for the sake of others. . . . These altruistic ambitions, naive though they may be, are infinitely precious. To a large degree our ability to pass successfully through the present crisis and bring about a day of peace and prosperity, depends upon our utilization of these energies. Our destiny rests with the boys and girls in our high schools. We cannot afford to ignore longer their interest in the welfare of their fellow-men."

Such is the conclusion of an article by Harry H. Moore in the April number of the *Educational Review* entitled, "The Altruistic Impulses of Older High School Students." The article is based on an original investigation among about 1,000 high school students (juniors and seniors) in sixteen representative cities of the United States.

The majority of these students claim to have had altruistic aims before their junior year. Many of these ambitions were naive, many were soon abandoned. But the important fact is that at the high school age, most students are socially-minded, are filled with the desire to make the world a better place to live in.

What have the schools done to encourage this ambition? Almost nothing. Only four per cent. gave the school as the source of their ambition. In many cases the ambition, aroused elsewhere, is allowed to die. It is not directed by a course in sociology or economics toward the important social and economic problems of the day. The immense fund of social purpose residing in our boys and girls of high school age, which is essential to preserve our civilization, is thus irretrievably lost.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS,  
PH.D.

In the May issue of *Asia*, in writing on "What Holds Back China," John Dewey says: "It may well be doubted whether there is any single key to the mystery. . . . But there is one fact which . . . must be taken into the reckoning; . . . many traits of the Chinese mind are the products of an extraordinary and long-continued density of populations . . . which has bred those habits of mind which . . . make the Chinese individually so companionably agreeable . . . and collectively so exasperating to the outsider."

In the *Contemporary Review* for April, "Some Objections to Nationalization" are given by the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Selborne, who says: "Nationalization is pressed, not for the sake of a redistribution of wealth for which simpler and perfectly familiar implements are available, but in the belief that it will improve production and increase what is available for distribution."

In *The Catholic World* for April, 1920, in his article entitled, "National Religion of Japan," Joseph Freri says: "The Japanese, unlike the Englishmen or Americans, have no god. The Mikado is to the Japanese what the Christian God is to the Westerners. . . . The national religion of Japan is nothing but a name to insure political ends. . . . On the other hand, . . . there is no room for any display of patriotism as we understand it. The only way in which it could manifest itself was by helping to keep the country closed to all visitors."

William Rosecoe Thayer, in his article on "Biography in the Nineteenth Century" (*North American* for May), says: "The texture of the lives led by the Americans was always so fresh and unconventional that it furnished little excuse for imitating the English practice of terminology. In England the successful man, whatever his profession, rose to this or that office, which may have existed for generations, and so it was natural for him to be known by the office or rank. In the United States a pioneer in one decade might be a State Governor or a bishop or a general in the next, so he was known for himself and not for his office."

"Sir Auchland Geddes, Ambassador of the British Empire," by Alfred L. P. Dennis, appears in the *World's Work* for May. Mr. Dennis says that "By virtue of his career, by nature of his character and by virtue of his qualities, he is going to be, first of all, Ambassador of the British Empire in a way which, without in any way implying the slightest criticism of his predecessors, none of them could have been."

In the *Atlantic* for May is published "Henry Adams," the second article in the series, "American Portraits, 1875-1900," by Gamaliel Bradford. Mr. Bradford's estimate of Mr. Adams, in which he says: "He spent his life tramping the world for education, but what he really needed was to be de-educated, and this also he was quite well aware of. He needs not to think, but to live. But he did not want to live. It was easier to sit back and proclaim life unworthy of Henry Adams than to lean forward with the whole soul in a passionate if inadequate effort to make Henry Adams worthy of life," is one in which most thoughtful readers of "The Education of Henry Adams" will heartily concur.

## History in the Summer Schools, 1920

**EDITOR'S NOTE.**—For the first time this list of courses in history in the summer schools of the country has been delayed until the June number. The delay has been due to the lateness in publishing and distributing the announcements of many of the institutions.

### UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS.

#### FAYETTEVILLE.

Prof. N. A. N. Clever.  
The Renaissance.  
The Far East and the Pacific Since 1800.  
Hispanic America, Colonial Period.

### UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

BERKELEY, JUNE 21 TO JULY 31, 1920.

Introduction to the Historical Study of Religion. Prof. M. Jastrow.  
Primitive Religions. Prof. M. Jastrow.  
Religions and Civilizations of the Ancient East. Prof. M. Jastrow.  
The Revolutionary and the Napoleonic Era. Prof. W. E. Lingelbach.  
Europe Since 1815. Prof. W. E. Lingelbach.  
Intellectual History of the Spanish American Republics. Prof. R. Ramirez.  
History of South America. Prof. R. Ramirez.  
History of Mexico. Prof. H. I. Priestley.  
History of the United States Since 1868. Prof. E. I. McCormac.  
The Trans-Mississippi West, 1803-1853. Prof. C. Goodwin.  
The Southwest, 1820-1845. Prof. C. Goodwin.  
Seminar in Hispanic American History. Prof. H. I. Priestley.  
Studies in American Diplomacy. Prof. E. I. McCormac.  
Teaching of History in Secondary Schools. Prof. H. Johnson.

### UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

LOS ANGELES, JUNE 21 TO JULY 31, 1920.

English Constitutional History Since 1660. Prof. W. A. Morris.  
History of the British Empire. Prof. W. A. Morris.  
Last Half Century in the United States. Prof. H. C. Hockett.  
Early Phases of the Westward Movement. Prof. H. C. Hockett.

### UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

CHICAGO, JUNE 21 TO SEPTEMBER 3, 1920.

The Medieval Period, 376-1300. Asst. Prof. Walker.  
The Later Medieval and Early Modern Period. Asst. Prof. Walker.  
The Later Modern Period, 1715-1900. Mr. Edwards.  
The Roman Empire. Asst. Prof. Huth.  
The Feudal Age, 814-1250. Mr. Joranson.  
Europe and the Orient in the Middle Ages; the Crusades. Mr. Joranson.  
The Renaissance. Prof. Patterson.  
Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Prof. Bourne.  
Expansion of Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Asst. Prof. Scott.  
The New Europe. Asst. Prof. Scott.  
National England. Prof. Terry.  
History of the United States, 1492-1783. Assoc. Prof. Boucher.  
Problems in United States History. Mr. Edwards.  
The End of the Roman Republic. Asst. Prof. Huth.  
The Reformation and Religious Wars. Prof. Patterson.  
The French Revolution and Napoleon. Prof. Bourne.  
England in the Nineteenth Century. Prof. Terry.

American Social and Industrial History, 1750-1830. Assoc. Prof. Jernegan.

Recent American History. Assoc. Prof. Boucher.

United States History, the Lower South, 1833-1861. Prof. Dodd.

Social Forces in the American Revolution. Assoc. Prof. Jernegan.

Monroe Doctrine in Recent World Politics. Prof. Dodd.

### UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

BOULDER, JUNE 14 TO AUGUST 28, 1920.

The Renaissance. Asst. Prof. Palm.  
The Reformation. Asst. Prof. Palm.  
English Constitutional History. Prof. Perkins and Asst. Prof. Palm.  
Modern England. Prof. Perkins.  
Teachers' Course in History. Assoc. Prof. Eckhardt.  
History of Russia. Assoc. Prof. Eckhardt.  
The French Revolution. Prof. Perkins.  
Europe Since 1870. Assoc. Prof. Eckhardt.  
Colony Planting in North America, 1492-1689. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.  
International Struggles and the American Revolution, 1689-1783. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.  
The Federalist and Republican Regimes, 1783-1815. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.  
The Westward Movement, 1815-1850. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.  
The Civil War and Reconstruction. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.  
United States Since Reconstruction. Assoc. Prof. Marshall.

### COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

NEW YORK CITY, JULY 6 TO AUGUST 13, 1920.

Ancient History, Graduate Courses: Prof. R. W. Rogers, The Ancient Orient; Prof. R. W. Rogers, The Hebrews; Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, The Hellenic and Hellenistic World from the Peloponnesian War to the Destruction of Corinth; Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, The Roman Empire from Caesar Augustus through the Barbarian Invasions.

Ancient and Medieval History, Undergraduate Courses: Dr. W. E. Caldwell, Ancient History (Survey for College Entrance); Dr. A. P. Evans, The Foundations of Modern Europe.

Modern and Contemporary European History, Graduate Courses: Prof. B. E. Schmitt, The Development of Europe from the Sixteenth Century to the French Revolution; Prof. D. S. Muzzey, The Old Regime, the French Revolution and the Work of Napoleon; Prof. B. E. Schmitt, European History Since 1870; Prof. R. L. Schuyler, History of England Since the Seventeenth Century; Prof. R. L. Schuyler, The British Commonwealth; Prof. W. R. Shepherd, The Expansion of Europe; Prof. R. J. Kerner, Recent Russian History; Prof. R. J. Kerner, The Break-up of Austria-Hungary.

Modern and Contemporary European History, Undergraduate Courses: Prof. B. B. Kendrick, Dr. A. P. Evans, Miss Mary E. Townsend, Modern and Contemporary European History.

American History, Graduate Courses: Prof. D. S. Muzzey, Survey of the History of the United States; Prof. E. P. Tanner, The Early National Period of the United States; Prof. B. B. Kendrick, The United States, 1876-1914; Prof. D. R. Fox, The History of the State of New York; Prof. E. P. Tanner, The History of the State of New Jersey; Prof. W. R. Shepherd, Hispanic America and its Relations with the United States.

American History, Undergraduate Courses: Prof. D. R. Fox, A Survey of American History to 1789; Dr. W. E. Caldwell, American History (Survey for College Entrance).

Courses in Teachers' College in History and Civics: Prof. J. M. Gambrill, The Teaching of History in the High School; Prof. J. M. Gambrill, Industrial and Social History; Miss L. L. Tall, The Teaching of History and Citizen-

ship in the Elementary School; Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Illustrative Lessons in Modern History; Mr. R. W. Hatch, The Teaching of Citizenship in Secondary Schools; Mr. R. W. Hatch, Illustrative Lessons in Citizenship; Mr. H. H. Goldberger, Americanization of the Immigrant.

## HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., JULY 6 TO AUGUST 14, 1920.

European History from Roman Empire to Present Time. Prof. C. H. Haskins.  
Greek and Roman History to the Break-up of the Roman Empire. Prof. Ferguson.  
The Beginnings of Christianity. Prof. K. Lake.  
English History. Prof. C. H. McIlwain.  
Historical Bibliography and Criticism. Prof. C. H. Haskins.  
Europe Since 1870. Prof. R. H. George.  
American History. Dr. F. Merk.  
History of the United States Since 1865. Dr. F. Merk.

## UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

URBANA, JUNE 21 TO AUGUST 14, 1920.

Europe, 1500-1763. Dr. Swain.  
Political and Social History of England to 1660. Dr. Swain.  
American History, 1750-1815. Prof. Way.  
The Teaching of History. Prof. Larson and others.  
History of England and the British Commonwealth, 1868-1920. Prof. Larson.  
History of American Diplomacy. Dr. Potter.  
History of the Frontier in American History to 1840. Prof. Way.  
Research in American History.  
Seminary in English History.

## UNIVERSITY OF INDIANA.

BLOOMINGTON, JUNE 8 TO JULY 30, 1920.

Medieval and Modern European History. Asst. Prof. Morgan.  
English History. Asst. Prof. Morgan.  
American History, 1829-1876. Prof. Woodburn and Assoc. Prof. Kohlmeier.  
English History, Development of Social Democracy. Asst. Prof. Morgan.  
Modern Europe, 1815-1915. Assoc. Prof. Kohlmeier.  
Historical Method. Assoc. Prof. Kohlmeier.  
American Parties and Party Leaders, 1789-1850. Prof. Woodburn.  
Seminary in American History. Prof. Woodburn.  
Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools. Mr. Vannest.  
American History, Introductory Course. Miss Palmer.

## UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.

## FIRST TERM.

IOWA CITY, JUNE 16 TO AUGUST 31, 1920.

European History, 1648-1815. Asst. Prof. Daley.  
History of United States, 1763-1850. Assoc. Prof. Pelzer.  
History of Greece. Asst. Prof. Daley.  
Modern France: Period of the Revolution. Prof. Plum.  
Making of Modern England. Prof. Plum.  
America and the World War. Assoc. Prof. Pelzer.  
New Viewpoints in American History. Prof. Schlesinger.  
The Teaching of History. Asst. Prof. Daley.  
Readings from American Historians. Assoc. Prof. Pelzer.  
Research in English History. Assoc. Prof. Pelzer.  
Research in Recent American History. Prof. Schlesinger.

## SECOND TERM.

Recent European History, 1815-1919. Prof. Benjamin.  
United States Since 1850. Miss Pierce.  
Contemporary French Civilization. Prof. Benjamin.  
The Teaching of History. Miss Pierce.

Readings in United States History. Miss Pierce.  
Research in Contemporary European History. Prof. Benjamin.

## IOWA STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS.

AMES, JUNE 14 TO JULY 21, 1920.

Industrial History of the United States. Asst. Prof. Moore.  
American Government. Asst. Prof. Moore.  
Research in the Economic History of Agriculture. Prof. Schmidt.

## JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

BALTIMORE, MD., JULY 6 TO AUGUST 13, 1920.

American Colonial History to 1690. Assoc. Prof. Bond, Purdue University. Graduate credit.  
Modern European History, 1789-1920. Assoc. Prof. Bond. Graduate credit.  
American History, 1789-1920. Assoc. Prof. Bond. Collegiate credit.  
Greek History. Assoc. Prof. Ebeling, Goucher College. Collegiate credit.

## KANSAS STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

MANHATTAN, KAN., MAY 28 TO JULY 30, 1920.

Beginnings of the American Nation. Prof. Ralph R. Price.  
Westward Expansion and Sectionalism. Prof. Price.  
American History Lectures, whole period, no credit. Prof. Price.  
Modern Europe. Assoc. Prof. I. Victor Iles.  
American Government. Assoc. Prof. Iles.  
Community Civics. Assoc. Prof. Iles.  
Teachers' Course in History. Assoc. Prof. Iles.  
English History. Assoc. Prof. Elden V. James.  
Current History. Assoc. Prof. James.

## THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS.

## LAWRENCE.

American Government. Mr. Moore.  
Contemporary Diplomacy. Mr. Davis.  
The American Revolution. Mr. Hodder.  
The Prelude to the Civil War. Mr. Hodder.  
Contemporary American History, 1876-1918. Mr. Davis.  
American State Government. Mr. Moore.  
Seminar in American History. Mr. Hodder.  
Contemporary Latin America.  
Problems of the Far East.

## LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.

## BATON ROUGE.

English History.  
Modern European History.  
American History (two courses).  
Methods of Teaching History.

## OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

COLUMBUS, JUNE 21 TO AUGUST 13, 1920.

History of the United States, 1763-1829. Mr. Wood.  
History of the United States, 1829-1919. Mr. Wood.  
The Teaching of American History. Prof. Knight.  
Recent History of the United States, 1870-1900. Prof. Knight.  
Seminary in American History. Prof. Knight.  
Modern History from 1500. Asst. Prof. Knipfling.  
History of England Since 1485. Prof. Siebert.  
History of Greece. Asst. Prof. Knipfling.  
The Renaissance. Prof. Siebert.  
Europe, 1815 to 1919. Asst. Prof. Washburne.  
History of the Church in Western Europe to the Reformation. Asst. Prof. Knipfling.  
Seminary in Modern European History. Prof. Siebert.



## GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS.

NASHVILLE, TENN., JUNE 12 TO AUGUST 29, 1920.

American History. Prof. Hamer.  
 American History. Prof. Hamer.  
 Ancient Civilization. Prof. Hamer.  
 Medieval Civilization. Prof. Hamer.  
 The Teaching of History. Prof. Fleming.  
 Methods in American History. Prof. Fleming.  
 The Great War. Prof. Fleming.  
 The United States and the War. Prof. Fleming.  
 Modern Europe, 1500-1815. Prof. Fleming.  
 Modern and Contemporary Europe, 1815-1914. Prof. Fleming.  
 Government and Politics in the United States. Prof. Dyer.  
 Reconstruction and Contemporary American History. Prof. Hamer.

## UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

PHILADELPHIA, JULY 7 TO AUGUST 14, 1920.

Europe after 1815. Mr. H. L. Hoskins.  
 The Teaching of History. Mr. H. L. Hoskins.  
 The United States, 1783-1850. Prof. E. C. Barker.  
 The United States and Mexico, 1821-1848. Prof. E. C. Barker.  
 Political and Social Problems of Modern England. Prof. C. Read.

## PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.

STATE COLLEGE, JUNE 28 TO AUGUST 6, 1920.

United States from 1760 to 1846. Prof. Martin.  
 United States Since 1846. Prof. Martin.  
 English History Since 1689. Prof. Knauss.  
 American Economic History. Mr. Mitch.  
 General European History. Prof. Knauss.  
 European International Relations. Prof. Martin.  
 The Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Prof. Knauss.

## UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH.

PITTSBURGH, PA.

Recent American History.  
 American Foreign Policy.  
 The Teaching of History.  
 Seminar in History.  
 Medieval Europe.  
 English History.  
 Contemporary Europe.  
 Observation and Methods in Junior High School History.  
 Courses in Roman and Greek civilization will be offered by the Departments of Latin and Greek.

## STANFORD UNIVERSITY.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., JUNE 22 TO SEPTEMBER 3, 1920.

European History, 395-1300. Prof. Show.  
 Europe Since 1815. Prof. Golder.  
 History of the United States Since 1880. Prof. E. D. Adams.  
 Methods of Teaching History. Prof. Show.  
 Seminar in Modern European History. Prof. Golder.  
 Seminar in American Diplomatic History. Prof. Adams.  
 Special Graduate Work. Prof. Adams, Prof. Golder.

## UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

AUSTIN, JUNE 8 TO AUGUST 31, 1920.

## FIRST TERM.

Origins of Modern Europe. Assoc. Prof. Riker.  
 Revolutionary Europe, 1789-1848. Prof. Perkins.  
 Europe Since 1848. Adj. Prof. Marsh.  
 American Colonies and the Revolution, 1492-1789. Prof. Flippen and Mr. Martin.  
 National Development and Expansion, 1789-1860. Prof. Winston.

Division and Reunion, 1860-1918. Prof. Ambler.  
 History of England. Prof. Perkins.  
 Reconstruction of Europe, 1918-1920. Assoc. Prof. Riker.  
 Jacksonian Democracy. Prof. Ambler.  
 The United States and Texas, 1835-1845. Prof. Winston.  
 France in the Nineteenth Century. Adj. Prof. Marsh.  
 History of the West to 1850. Mr. Martin.  
 Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century Colonial Problems. Prof. Flippen.

## SECOND TERM.

American Colonies and Revolution. Prof. Flippen.  
 National Development and Expansion. Prof. Ramsdell.  
 Division and Reunion. Prof. Ambler.  
 History of England to 1337. Adj. Prof. Gutch.  
 History of England, 1337-1763. Adj. Prof. Gutch.  
 The American Revolution. Prof. Flippen.  
 Formation of the Constitution. Prof. Ambler.  
 Reconstruction, 1863-1868. Prof. Ramsdell.  
 History of the South. Asst. Prof. Cole.  
 History Teaching. Asst. Prof. Cole.  
 History of the West, 1850-1920. Mr. Martin.  
 History of Russia. Mr. Martin.

## UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

MADISON, JUNE 28 TO AUGUST 6, 1920.

Professors Chase, Fish, McNeal (Ohio), Paxson, Root, and Westermann.  
 Medieval History, 1095-1500.  
 History of the United States, 1763-1830.  
 History of Rome.  
 The Teaching of History.  
 Representative Americans.  
 Hellenistic-Roman Civilization.  
 Nineteenth Century France.  
 United States in the Great War.  
 British Empire Since 1815.  
 Seminary in American History.  
 Seminary in United States History.

(Continued on page 251)

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

USHER, ABBOTT PAYSON. An Introduction to the Industrial History of England. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. Pp. xxii, 529, xxxiv. \$2.50.

This book has many decided merits. It embodies much new and significant information grounded on a wide and discriminating knowledge of the sources and literature, and it explodes not a few stale errors and misconceptions. Moreover, while it frankly challenges certain socialistic interpretations of industrial history—their “naive presumptions with all the paraphernalia of erudite scholarship”—and shows a degree of sympathy with governmental and capitalistic policies that have been on occasion unqualifiedly condemned, it is generally sane and reasonable in its point of view. On the whole, because of its compact and stimulating presentation of a complicated and difficult subject, it should be indispensable for the teacher and for collateral reading. Its value as a college textbook can only be determined by experience. However, in more than one respect, it would seem to have the defects of its qualities. In its effort to controvert received opinions its discussions are, here and there, overrefined for the beginner, and, in places at least, historical knowledge is taken for granted which, sad to admit, the ordinary student does not possess. Furthermore, the author hazards novel experiments in proportioning the limited space at his disposal. The first three

chapters, while full of valuable information about industrial organization in antiquity and in medieval France, and some later chapters containing rather detailed descriptions of technical processes—which good as they are will be hard for all but the mechanically minded to grasp—might, in the opinion of the reviewer, be curtailed to advantage, in order to treat more fully the commercial and agrarian aspects of the subject as well as recent labor problems.

As far as he goes, Professor Usher handles in a masterly fashion practically every problem he takes up. He has no servile respect for conventional labels, and he sees in industrial as in other history the play of forces continuously at work, rather than as a series of abrupt transformations. He seeks to make clear and definite terms which are all too often vaguely and loosely used; for example, he substitutes for "domestic system" the more distinctive if less euphonious designation "putting-out system;" he very properly distinguishes "occupational specialization from crafts with customs and statutes;" and he endeavors to arrive at a true definition of the factory system, though, in the latter case, while aiming to show that machinery is not essential he is bound to admit that factories were never generally or successfully operated until it was introduced. Occasionally a term is brought in without an explanation of its origin or exact meaning, for instance, "pie powder," "mortmain," "mill," and "pool." Among the topics which might have been treated a bit more comprehensively are the Black Death, the Peasant Revolt, the Poor Law of 1834 and the Taff Vale Case; indeed, the Trades Dispute Act, which practically reversed the latter, is not mentioned at all. In his account of Chartism, in many ways excellent, Professor Usher fails to state that the demands of the Chartists, while regarded as extravagant at the time, have all been subsequently adopted, at least in the case of five of their six points. The bibliographies are, on the whole, well selected and the maps and plans are helpful, though the print in the former is sometimes so small as to need a microscope. In concluding, the reviewer wishes to commend Professor Usher's sound views, amply illustrated, that great industrial and social developments are very complicated in their causes and effects, and to commend further his sane and suggestive, if, now and again, somewhat over-cautious comments on the great movements with which he has to deal.

ARTHUR LYON CROSS.

The University of Michigan.

GOURKO, BASIL (GENERAL). *War and Revolution in Russia, 1914-1917*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xii, 420. \$4.00.

RUSSELL, CHARLES EDWARD. *Unchained Russia*. New York: D. C. Appleton & Co., 1918. Pp. 324. \$1.50.

BEATTY, BESSIE. *The Red Heart of Russia*. New York: The Century Co., 1918. Pp. 480. \$2.00.

These books are of quite different character, conservative or monarchical, socialist with an accent upon sanity and order, emotional with Bolshevik sympathies. The first is most scholarly, most military, and most political. Little is said of the economic undercurrent in Russian conditions. The second is more popular, more philosophical, gives some attention to the economic basis aforesaid, and while disappointing in many respects, it has in places given us true insight into the situation. The third relies upon instinct and intuition, and is superficial in that the author judges from what she sees just around her and what is told to her. It is without background, as is also, to a considerable extent, "Unchained Russia." It is unfortunate

that the one of these three best equipped to give us a true statement of the situation so far as knowledge of Russia is concerned, is rather "out of court" on account of his political environment, while it would be impossible to accept as final authority or as capable of discriminating between the facts and alleged facts presented to them, either of the other two writers who apparently went to Russia with the best intentions in the world, but whose limitations inhibited them from being dispassionate judges.

General Gourko's preface contains a well-worth-while defense of the Russian army and people and their work in the war, and also a keen criticism of Germany's attitude before the war. The first half of the book describes the fighting in East Prussia, Galicia, and Poland, and gives us most interesting and valuable information. The latter part of the book is concerned more with the internal political life of Russia, although it has chapters on the fighting in Roumania, the Polish question (mixed with those on the Russian Revolution), the results of the German intrigues, and the Kerensky regime. In the chapters on the military side, we see more clearly the effective part that Russia played in over two years of war in saving France from being overwhelmed by keeping the Central Powers occupied. The unpreparedness of Russia in munitions and in transportation facilities is especially emphasized, and the results that were achieved are shown to have happened in spite of the serious difficulties under which the Russian army labored at all times. This presentation of the reasons for the Russian defeat will bear close reading. While General Gourko will naturally be read with more caution on the political situation, even in this part of the book where his prejudices might sway him the most there is much material of value. He was closely allied with the empire, and one would infer that if he had favored any change at all in the government of Russia, he would have preferred a constitutional monarchy rather than any form of republic.

There are three appendices of distinct value: The Tsar's Order of the Day (December 25, 1916), giving the Russian aims in the war; General Gourko's letter to the Tsar written four days after the abdication; and the order of the commander-in-chief of the western front, June 8, 1917, giving an explanation of Gourko's attitude toward the provisional government. The index is quite adequate. The illustrations might be criticized as "featuring" General Gourko himself, with too few on things of general interest.

The author of "Unchained Russia" is an American socialist who was a member of the commission that the United States sent to Russia in 1917 in order to welcome the new republic. His book takes us from the downfall of the Tsar and the Bolshevik coup d'état to November, 1917. Mr. Russell gives us the different points of view of all the political groups in new Russia, including that of the Bolsheviks, of the Social Revolutionists, of the Cadets, etc. So far as it goes, it is informing in nature, but apt to be vague and can be criticized in many places as wandering away from the chapter titles.

Mr. Russell's characterizations of both peasant and Bolshevik are most interesting. To both he is sympathetic. He does not allow his sympathies to run away with him, but describes well the dreamy ignorance and the susceptibility of the Russian to German propaganda. Mr. Russell presents more evidence concerning the efforts of American pacifists and pro-German speakers upon the Russian mind, and the natural result in stopping any further participation of Russia in the war, for which Mr. Russell divides the blame between the mistaken propaganda of the allied leaders and the mischievous statements of the American pacifists and these pro-German agitators.

Mr. Russell apparently is in some confusion (on page 77) over the two sets of documents which have been published concerning the dealings of Lenine and Trotsky with the Germans. No one can be in any doubt as to why Mr. Russell lost the copies he possessed when the German agents were able to get at them.

The natural affinity of Russia to Germany due to the centuries-long connection between the two is by no means the least useful hint that Mr. Russell gives us for our guidance.

Its popular character is emphasized by the lack of any index or preface, and there are no maps and no illustrations. Too much cannot be expected of such a work, especially considering the short time that Mr. Russell was in Russia and the necessity under which he labored of depending largely upon second-hand information. The philosophical tone throughout is interesting, but does not give us the hard facts that we have been waiting for. Still, his treatment of the comparatively few facts that he does give is most attractive, and he does impress a few needed truths. He disabuses us of the idea "that democracy is any novelty to the Russians." The true character of the Russian village is not badly given, especially considering the erroneous impression prevalent in this country that the Russian peasant is "socialistic."

The first test that a book on Russia must meet is whether or not it gives us any additional authoritative information. This is furnished by Miss Beatty's book, since she has secured information of value, illustrating the point of view of various parties, particularly of the Bolsheviks. Although it is not so reliable in some cases as it might be, it can be considered somewhat helpful in forming our conclusions as to Russian conditions. It is a book of experiences rather than a political, historical, or even social study. It is for the mature student or well-read reader to evaluate rather than for unsophisticated pupils.

In spite of the fact that the author at times distinctly overemphasizes the ephemeral, trivial, and unimportant matters with a stress upon the dramatic, the narrative runs well, and relates most vividly the events that she herself saw during the exciting days of 1917 and early 1918. The limitations of the author must be clearly kept in mind, with no knowledge of Russia before her arrival in Russia, and with little acquired apparently, afterwards, she could not, of course, have the first-hand knowledge gained by direct contact with many classes of people. Her information frequently filters through others. Her visits to sections outside of Moscow and Petrograd were naturally brief and rather unsatisfactory. Her best story concerning the peasantry she gives on the authority of a certain Russian, and other parts of her narrative are as clearly second-hand. One wonders how much background the author had of Russian history and politics, Russian literature and customs, to enable her to formulate the conclusions that she suggests. Readers will not, however, find any definite opinion expressed, even as to the righteousness of the Bolshevik position in regard to the Constituent Assembly, although Miss Beatty suggests that no one having power would ever be willing to give it up no matter how illegal or unjust its position might be. The statement that she had never met a government that would do what the Bolsheviks were called upon to do—i.e., give up their authority to the constituent assembly—would seem to many as rather begging the question as to the real legitimacy or real right of the Bolsheviks to rule. Miss Beatty does not claim positively that the majority of the Russians accepted the Bolshevik administration, although she gives us that impression when

she speaks of the peasants uniting with the soldiers and sailors in the General Congress in the capital. Lenine's argument, which she puts forward, that the Constituent Assembly did not represent Russia because it was elected under the auspices of Lenine's opponents would not appear to many as conclusive, especially in view of the fact that Lenine, Trotsky, etc., have deliberately cut the representation of the peasants down to a point where they could not outnumber in the Government the representatives of the proletariat. Nothing is said about the Red Terror that followed the author's departure from Russia and raged in 1918, although Miss Beatty would give one the impression in her chapter on the revolutionary tribunal that the Bolsheviks were exceedingly lenient in dealing with their opponents, certainly a too favorable view.

It is significant that the parties opposed to the Bolsheviks were apparently much in favor of a Federal Republic. As regards the dissolution of the Assembly itself the author states that the Bolsheviks had bayonets while the conservatives merely had a majority of the Assemblies, but were helpless. The Assembly was just starting the discussion of the land question after having proclaimed a Federal Republic when it was forcibly dissolved.

On the other hand, the author gives us a good deal concerning the difficulties confronting the Kerensky government, and blunders of the Allies in dealing with it. Like others, she testifies to the adroitness and effectiveness of the German propaganda and its part in putting the Bolsheviks into power, while putting Russia out of the war. She also calls our attention to the vital importance of the land question. One slip, at least, she makes which has escaped her proofreader—there is no Department of Public Information in the United States, although we have had a committee of that name. Her chapter on the women of the revolution is most excellent, and it is interesting to note the tribute she pays to Madam Breshkovskaia.

The book is most interestingly illustrated, although maps are a minus quantity, and an index is lacking.

ARTHUR I. ANDREWS.

Tufts College.

FARIS, JOHN T. *Historic Shrines of America*. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1918. Pp. 421. \$3.50.

This handsome volume, like Aladdin's magic carpet, has the power to transport its possessor to regions remote from his home. The reader, carried on this sight-seeing journey to places prominently identified with American history, will travel first through the land of the Pilgrims, visiting about a dozen of the towns and cities of Massachusetts and Rhode Island where ancient buildings still mark famous sites. Thence he will go where Patroons and Knickerbockers flourished, paying his homage to nine who gained renown in the region which was once the New Netherlands. Pennsylvania will supply thirteen more stopping-places, and Delaware, Maryland and Washington eight others. His longest stay will be in Virginia where twenty-three historic shrines are on his itinerary. Thence his route will be directed to the south and the southwest. In all he will be shown ninety-one famous mansions, churches, courthouses and university or college buildings concerning which both authentic history and fascinating legend are drawn upon for the information of the sightseer. These descriptions are interesting and enlightening, and the seventy-two excellent reproductions of fine photographs add much vividness to the impressions gained. Public libraries should have this book, and teachers and pupils will find it very useful.



DAWSON, WILLIAM HARBUTT. *The German Empire, 1867-1914, and The Unity Movement*. Two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xviii, 496; x, 535. \$5.00.

Than Mr. Dawson there is no Englishman living more competent to write about Germany. His many publications in the German field, among which are such critical studies as *Germany and the Germans*, *Municipal Life and Government in Germany*, have won him a merited fame as an expert in the social and economic phases of modern Germany, and if he now undertakes to crown his labors by unfolding the political history of Germany he moves along a line of effort logically determined by his past. For a political study in the narrow sense of the word is what the author offers in his present work. As he tells us himself in the Preface, *Kulturgeschichte* and its many implications are rigorously excluded from consideration, as is also military history. After a somewhat hurried introduction, covering that period of German history lying between the Congress of Vienna and the revolution of 1848, the author falls into the deliberate pace appropriate to his plan as the unitarian movement looms above the horizon with the appearance in Prussia of the question of army reform. With its championship before the parliament by the redoubtable Junker, Otto von Bismarck, drafted for the purpose from the diplomatic service, we plunge into the maelstrom. The successive achievements of the famous statesman are minutely related and discussed, and after his dismissal from office twenty-eight years later, in 1890, we are given the significant developments at home and abroad which cluster around the dominant, though by no means Bismarckian, figure of William II. Since the author pauses at the threshold of the Great War, he will be obliged in a new edition to add the record of the four years which carries Germany to the cataclysm of November, 1918. Then only will he have swung full circle round and brought to its conclusion the strange and bewildering drama of the German empire destined to hold the stage of history a little over fifty years.

Though the author does not disclose his bibliographical apparatus and excuses the omission on the ground of space, the informed reader can easily assure himself by the evidence of the text itself that all the essential sources have been put under requisition. The author's grip is always firm and elastic, but the confidence which he abundantly inspires, while due in the first place to the solid foundation of his knowledge, may be attributed in an at least equal degree to the vigorous and balanced quality of his mind. We note with gratification that he is consistently moderate of speech and fair of mind, characteristics which used to be taken for granted in the devotees of Clio, but which call for explicit statement in these days when men of the historical profession everywhere have conclusively shown that they are as subject to passionate brain-storms, as journalists, politicians, and the humble rank and file of "tired business men" who have never dreamt of advancing pretensions to a high, objective detachment. Better even, because more positive, than the endowment of an equitable temper, are the sustained dignity and noble, instinctive humanity of the author, by virtue of which he succeeds in creating a sympathetic spiritual element admirably suited to enfold and unify his presentation.

These varied merits of matter and mind can be tested best by the treatment of the architect of the German state, of Bismarck, who naturally bestrides the book like a colossus. Something like two-thirds of the work is taken up with the policies and achievements of the man of blood and iron. His distinguished qualities, such as his intelligence, pene-

tration, and audacity, the author is quick to sense and ready to set forth with respectful admiration, but he is just as frank to exhibit the reverse of the medal and to make clear how Bismarck's persistently feudal outlook, his fundamental lack of sympathy with the modern industrial and democratic world, his open violence and calculated Macchiavellism compromised the integrity and threatened the permanence of his creation from the first. Evidence, too, is accumulated of the demoralizing effect on German political parties and on the German people of Bismarck's systematic opportunism. In substance the great statesman not only kept his countrymen in leading-strings, but, by converting his prestige into a species of magic wand, succeeded by its means in reducing his people to a state of trance, in which they consented blindly to divest themselves of their judgment and responsibility as men and citizens. If this masterful system led to a brilliant period which carried Germany into the forefront of the European powers, it was almost certainly bound to end in disaster under less circumspect and inspired guidance than that of the first chancellor. When all is said, Bismarck both made and unmade the German empire, though Mr. Dawson does not exactly commit himself to this suggestive conclusion. Preferably and systematically pragmatic, he rarely abandons the solid ground of fact to indulge in broad and necessarily dubious generalization.

With regard to some mooted points it is interesting to note that the author does not hesitate to put the responsibility of the three wars of 1864, 1866, and 1870-71 squarely on the shoulders of Bismarck, who of course always calmly accepted the burden on the plea that an adequate and statesmanlike end was served by his policy. In the matter of the Ems dispatch Mr. Dawson holds a middle ground as judicially fair to the subtlety of Bismarck as to the stupid insolence of the Duke of Grammont. The treatment accorded to William II, as well as to the innumerable foreign and domestic issues raised in William's time, moves on as high a level as the section devoted to Bismarck. Even the outbreak of the Great War is related with considerable detachment, though a large number of facts which have but recently come to light have failed to win recognition. When the last chapter will have been brought up to date and the history of the struggle of 1914-18 will have been added, we shall have an account of the defunct empire so rich, complete and mentally balanced as to meet the needs of our serious reading public for many a day.

FERDINAND SCHEVILLE.

University of Chicago.

HACKETT, FRANCIS. *Ireland: A Study in Nationalism*. New York: W. B. Huebsch, 1919. Pp. xx, 410. \$2.00.

CREEL, GEORGE. *Ireland's Fight for Freedom*. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1919. Pp. xiv, 199. \$2.00.

Historians and history teachers must make a distinction between those books which attempt to show facts as they have been discovered and those which arrange certain facts to prove a conclusion reached before the facts were investigated.

Both of these books belong to the latter class. They are both a part of the Irish propaganda which is prevalent in this country at the present time. Mr. Hackett shows this when he says: "The Sinn Fein abstinence from participation in British governmental processes is the beginning of an experiment in passive resistance that military policy and tyrannical legislation may fail to crush. And if this withdrawal of consent, this policy of a Continental Congress and a government-within-a-government can be made

to work indefinitely, the unceasing propaganda of Irishmen everywhere can scarcely be defeated." (Page XIX.)

Mr. Hackett wrote his book in 1918 to prove that Home Rule was the solution of the Irish question (pp. 360-61). However, in this preface to the third edition he comes out for the Irish Republic as the only solution, because: "An Irish Republic absolutely independent of Britain is definitely established as the 'irreducible minimum' on which the great majority have set their hearts." (Page I.) He explains that, "It was my own preoccupation with the democratic claims of Ulster and Unionist minority that led me to advocate dominion home rule in this book." (Page VII.) One cannot help but wonder if the wish of the Irish is not his permanent preoccupation.

Though the book is written in a pleasing style and brings out many good points, one must be on his guard against prejudiced conclusions. When the author says, "Ulster's self-will cannot be permitted to dictate the fate of Ireland, any more than Prussia's self-will can be permitted to dictate the fate of Europe" (page 363), he might have added, any more than Ireland can be permitted to dictate the fate of the British Empire.

Mr. Creel's book has been more hastily and carelessly written than Mr. Hackett's. His references on pages XII and XIV where he speaks of the number of people of Irish birth or descent and the percentage of the late army of the United States who were of Irish descent show the propaganda nature of the book.

One would have to search a long time to find more inaccuracies in historical facts than this book furnishes on pages 62 and 63. He has Edward Third of England following Henry Sixth on the throne. He has Henry Seventh following Henry the Eighth, and on page 141 he has Elizabeth ruling in 1551.

These are only a few of the many errors in the book which show a lack of acquaintance with the elementary facts of English history.

There are so many books of this nature being turned out now that history teachers must be on their guard against them.

C. A. SMITH.

University of Wisconsin.

WEBSTER, H. *Medieval and Modern History*. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. xxxv, 787. \$1.60.

The ground covered by a history of European civilization between the years 476 and 1919 is so extensive, and the pedagogical demands on a textbook are so exacting, that it is gratifying to find a treatment at the same time original and at all adequate. Professor Webster has succeeded in producing such a text. The style, if lacking somewhat in dramatic effect, is always clear and holds well the attention; the book is distinctly readable.

The pedagogical apparatus consists of a select bibliography, useful for the teacher as well as for the student; a copious index and pronouncing vocabulary; excellent cross references which knit together various aspects of situations treated separately for the sake of clearness; a hundred maps, some in black and white, some in color, and all of them good; and over two hundred and fifty illustrations and plates, well chosen and really instructive. At the end of each chapter, in place of the usual bibliographical references, is a list of "suggestive" questions to "stir the sluggish mind, provoke debate and lead to constructive thinking." Except for references to the author's "Readings in Medieval and Modern History," there are, in fact, throughout the book few specific suggestions for outside reading.

The book has been written since the outbreak of the Great War, which has naturally influenced Professor Webster in the presentation of his subject. Napoleon's *coup d'état* of 1799 is described, for example, as the supplanting of democracy by militarism (p. 522). The story of the war itself is based on *ex parte* evidence which has not yet had the historical corrective of evidence from the "other" side. The Secret Treaty of London in 1915 makes one question, for example, the complete correctness of the statement given to explain the entrance of Italy into the war (pp. 731-2). A truer perspective of the early position of the United States as a neutral would certainly have been given, had some mention been made of the vigorous protests of this government to England, as well as to Germany, when the "war zones" were first established (p. 735). One cannot assent to the statement that the disintegration of Russia was "in defiance of Bolsheviki (sic) rule" (p. 740). Yet faults of this kind are probably inevitable if teachers insist that textbooks on history be brought strictly down to date. Not only is it impossible to create the proper perspective, but, in times of rapid change like these, a text is out of date before it comes from the press. It is strangely reminiscent to read on page 582 that most of the Irish members in the British Parliament belong to the Nationalist party favoring Home Rule, and that the Labor party is an ally of the Liberals.

On the other hand, the war requires quite properly a new evaluation and a new emphasis of old events. Most high school texts are greatly deficient in the treatment of Eastern Europe. The volume under review has some excellent chapters on this subject. The importance of the Eastern Empire during the Middle Ages is duly appreciated (chapter II), the rise and spread of Islam is excellently treated (chapter IV), and a chapter on the Mongols and the Ottoman Turks (chapter IX) completes the picture of the reaction of East upon West down to the modern era.

Instead of an attempt to make a chronological narrative, heavy with details, and with the very recent history included, more voluminous than ever, Professor Webster has so divided his book that each chapter is a clear comprehensive account of a movement or situation. It involves some sacrifices, as seen, for example, in chapters XXI and XXII on the nineteenth century, the former dealing with Nationalism and the latter with Democracy. The two movements are too closely united in the actual events of the century to be so ruthlessly separated. Yet upon the whole the topical treatment of the book is skilfully done and amply justified. Of the topics so treated, in addition to those dealing with Eastern history mentioned above, one might especially call attention to the excellence of the following: The Northmen (chapter V), Medieval Civilization (chapter XII), the Industrial Revolution (chapter XXIV), Modern Civilization (chapter XXV), and to chapters XIV, XVIII and XXIII, dealing with European colonization and the expansion of European civilization to the other continents.

The volume is not without inaccuracies of statement. The British fleet evacuated Toulon in 1793, not in 1794 (p. 521); properly speaking, the *interdict* and *excommunication* were not punishments, but coercive measures, and the bishops were not, in theory or in fact chosen "by the clergy of their diocese" (p. 153). The king's justice in England was not cheap nor had the petty jury introduced by Henry II into England been "long" in use in Normandy (p. 197). One gets a wrong impression of the reign of Elizabeth from the statement that "several hundred priests, mostly Jesuits, suffered death" at her hands (p. 362). The number of *passive* citizens in France in 1791 was more

nearly one-half than one-quarter of the males of voting age (p. 510).<sup>1</sup> One would gather from page 621 that the Anglo-Japanese alliance followed and not preceded the Russian war, and it is not clear that Russia was the ring-leader in the intervention of the three European powers after the treaty of Shimonoseki (p. 616).<sup>2</sup> In the process of consolidation it is difficult to avoid all erroneous impressions, but it might have been possible with a little more care to have escaped some of them. A few words of qualification would have redeemed the impression that there were no horsemen before Charlemagne (p. 121), that medieval serfdom represented mainly a *rise* in social status (p. 135), that the important characteristic of the common law was its contrast to local custom (p. 198), that the *witenagemot* was an appellate court (p. 200), that the Arthurian romances were unknown in France until carried there by Norman conquerors of England (p. 251), or that the commutation of feudal service made a *serf* into a *free* tenant farmer (p. 298).

In spite of minor inaccuracies, however, the book leaves in the mind of the reader a lively, and, in the main, correct impression of the many factors in European history which have contributed to the civilization of the present day.

H. M. VARRELL.

Simmons College.

In an article entitled, "Concerning the Teaching of History" (*Educational Review* for March), William T. Laprade deplores the lack of general interest in history among the younger students.

#### LIST OF HISTORICAL ARTICLES IN CURRENT PERIODICALS.

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK.

##### GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS.

- Historical Criticism. A. F. Pollard (*History*, April).  
 The Beginnings of Human History Read from the Geological Record: The Emergence of Man. John C. Merriam (*Scientific Monthly*, May).  
 The Problem of the History of Science in the College Curriculum. Henry Crew (*Scientific Monthly*, May).  
 Nisan Fourteenth and Fifteenth in Gospel and Talmud: A Study in Jewish Camouflage. Matthew A. Power (*American Journal of Theology*, April).  
 A Proposed Reconstruction of Early Hebrew History. Theophile J. Meek (*American Journal of Theology*, April).  
 Tacitus and Tiberius. G. A. Harter (*American Journal of Philology*, January, February, March).  
 The Position of Women in Ancient Babylonia and Israel. II. Franz M. Böhl (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, April).  
 The Woman in the Church (concluded). Paul Lindemann (*Theological Quarterly*, April).  
 Why Were the Jews Banished from Italy in 19 A. D.? W. A. Heidel (*American Journal of Philology*, January, February, March).  
 The Parochial Law of Tithes: Its Scottish Origin and Adoption by Europe and England. Thomas Miller (*Juridical Review*, March).  
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 Monarchs Tried by Enemies. A. Francis Stuart (*Juridical Review*, March).

<sup>1</sup> Aulard, "French Revolution," I, 209, note 3.

<sup>2</sup> Bland, "Li Hung-chang," 177 ff.

- Biography in the Nineteenth Century, I. William R. Thayer (*North American Review*, May).  
 Greece Under the Bavarians, 1833-1843. John Navrogor-dato (*New World*, April).  
 The History of the Scheldt (continued). Charles Terlinden (*History*, April).  
 Forty Years of a Diplomat's Life (continued). Baron Rosen (*Saturday Evening Post*, May 8).  
 The Last Decade of Pompeian Studies. A. W. Van Buren (*Classical Journal*, April).  
 Siberia Under Kolchak's Dictatorship. Maj. Henry W. Newman (*Current History*, May).  
 The Crisis of Western Civilization. Guglielmo Ferrero (*Atlantic Monthly*, May).

##### THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

- The Indian Alphabet. D. R. Bhandarkar (*Calcutta Review*, January).  
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 Barony and Thanage. R. R. Reid (*English Historical Review*, April).  
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 The Date of Henry VII's Birth. Georgina R. Cole-Baker (*English Historical Review*, April).  
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##### THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS.

- The Struggle for the Adriatic. Charles Seymour (*Yale Review*, April).  
 The Secret of German Camouflage. Solomon J. Solomon (*World's Work*, London, April).  
 What Foch Really Said. Raymond Recouly (Captain X, *Scribner's*, May). The historic scene when the armistice was signed in a railway car.  
 Italy's Part in the World War. Col. Di Bernezzo (*Current History*, May).  
 Epic of the Ninth Division in the Battle of St. Quentin. Walter S. Sparrow (*National Review*, April).  
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Does the World War Initiate a New Phase in the Industrial Revolution? P. Mantoux (*History*, April).

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America's Attitude towards the Peace Treaty. D. Henry Rees and James M. Beck (*Fortnightly Review*, April).

U. S. A. Constitution and the Treaty. J. C. Dundas (*Nineteenth Century and After*, April).

Preserving North Carolina's World War Records as a State Enterprise. Robert B. House (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).

A Pre-War Mystery. Hugh E. M. Stutfield (*National Review*, April). The concordat between the Vatican and Serbia.

#### UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES.

Sebastian Vizcaino: Exploration of California. Charles E. Chapman (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, April).

The Earliest Record on the Franciscan Missions in America. Rev. Livarius Oliger (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).

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The Aftermath of Nat Turner's Insurrection. John W. Cromwell (*Journal of Negro History*, April).

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George Washington Land Speculator. Ada H. Hixon (*Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, January, 1919).

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Mirabeau Buonaparte Lamar (continued). A. K. Christian (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, April).

The Development of the Free Public High School in Illinois to 1860 (continued). Paul E. Belting (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, January, 1919).

Steamboating on the Upper Mississippi after the Civil War: A Mississippi Magnate. Lester B. Shippee (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March). The experiences of William F. Davidson.

The Development of the Negro Public School System in Missouri. Henry S. Williams (*Journal of Negro History*, April). 1865-1875.

Religious Education in Negro Colleges and Universities. David H. Sims (*Journal of Negro History*, April).

Daniel Wolsey Voorhees. Henry D. Jordan (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).

How Grover Cleveland was Nominated and Elected President. George F. Parker (*Saturday Evening Post*, April 24).

Oklahoma Territorial Supreme Court. Thomas H. Doyle (*Historia*, April 1).

The American Cotton Association. Robert P. Brooks (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).

Henry Adams. Gamaliel Bradford (*Atlantic Monthly*, May).

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Clark, Arthur H., Company. The United States; a catalogue of books relating to the history of its various states, counties, and cities, and offered for sale at reasonable prices. Cleveland, O.: A. H. Clark Co. \$1.00, net.

Coburn, Frederick W. History of Lowell and its people. N. Y.: Lewis Historical Pub. Co., 265 Broadway. 3 vols. (7 pp. bibls.). \$25.00.

Diffenderfer, Frank R. The loyalists in the Revolution. Lancaster, Pa.: Lanc. County Hist. Soc. 50 cents.

Godfrey, Carlos E. The Lenape Indians. Trenton, N. J.: Trenton Hist. Soc. 16 pp. Privately printed.

Hasse, Adelaide R. Index to United States documents relating to foreign affairs, 1828-1861. In 3 parts. P. 2, I to Q. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 795-1331 pp. \$6.00.

Havens, Catherine E. Diary of a little girl in old New York. N. Y.: H. C. Brown. 101 pp. \$3.00.

Melencio, José P. Arguments against Philippine independence and their answers. Wash., D. C.: Philippine Press Bureau. 30 pp.

Merlant, Capt. Joachim. Soldiers and sailors of France in the American war for Independence (1776-1783). N. Y.: Scribner. 213 pp. \$2.00, net.

North Carolina University. North Carolina Club. State reconstruction studies. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 60 pp. 50 cents, net.

Persinger, Clark E. Student's outline of American History from 1824 to 1919; second semester of a one-year course for high schools, normal schools and colleges. New edition. Lincoln, Neb.: University Pub. Co. 77 pp. 32 cents.

#### ANCIENT HISTORY.

Bentwich, Norman de M. Hellenism. Phila.: Jewish Pub. Soc. of America, Broad St. and Girard Ave. 386 pp. \$1.75.

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## EUROPEAN HISTORY.

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- Trevelyan, Janet Penrose. A short history of the Italian people; from the barbarian invasions to the attainment of unity. N. Y.: Putnam. 580 pp. (8 pp. bibls.). \$5.00, net.

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- Canfield, Harry S. The world war; a pictorial history. N. Y.: B. C. Forbes Pub. Co., 299 Broadway. 320 pp. \$3.00.
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- McPherson, William L. A short history of the great war. N. Y.: Putnam. 410 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Rufener, Louis A. The economic position of Switzerland during the war. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 88 pp. 10 cents.

- U. S. Provost Marshal General's Bureau. Final report to the Secretary of War on the operations of the selective service system to July 15, 1919. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 288 pp.

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- Baldwin, James. The story of Liberty. [History reader for elementary grades.] N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 240 pp. 88 cents.
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- Bury, George W. Pan-Islamism. N. Y.: Macmillan. 212 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Japan (The) Year Book for 1919-1920. N. Y.: Dixie Book Shop, agents, 41 Liberty St. 810 pp. \$5.00.
- Kurkjian, Vahan M. The Armenian kingdom of Cilicia. N. Y.: V. M. Kurkjian, 287 Fourth Ave. 24 pp.

## BIOGRAPHY.

- Connor, Henry G. John Archibald Campbell, justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, 1853-1861. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 310 pp. \$2.25, net.
- Clark, Champ. My quarter century of American politics. 2 vols. N. Y.: Harpers. \$6.00, net.
- Fisher, Sir John. Memories and records. Vol. 1, Memories; Vol. 2, Records. N. Y.: Doran. 278, 264 pp. \$8.00, net.
- Grootzinger, Thomas. Heroes of National History. Phila.: Franklin Pub. & Supply Co. 269 pp. 75 cents, net.
- Kellogg, Charlotte Hoffman. Mercier, the fighting cardinal of Belgium. N. Y.: Appleton. 248 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Mercier, Desiré Felicien F. J., Cardinal. Cardinal Mercier's own story. N. Y.: Doran. 441 pp. \$6.00, net.
- Dodd, William E. Woodrow Wilson and his work. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 369 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Wilson, Woodrow. Addresses delivered by President Wilson on his western tour, September 4 to September 25, 1919. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 370 pp.
- Holme, John G. The life of Leonard Wood. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 228 pp. \$1.50, net.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS.

- Allen, Stephen H. International relations [Development of International Law]. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press. 672 pp. \$5.00.
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- Mead, George W. The great menace; Americanism or Bolshevism? N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 153 pp. \$1.25, net.
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(Continued from page 244)

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- WC. Title Page, War Aims Maps, Flags, etc.
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### Note: Maps from H22 to WCa Constitute a Set of War Aim Maps

The following is an extract from the Preface in Professor Harding's Manual:

"The necessity of adequate map equipment for the satisfactory teaching of history is now unquestioned. If, in many cases, teachers are still called upon to teach history without a sufficient supply of maps—to make 'bricks without straw,' as the Israelites were forced to do in the time of their bondage—it is not because the need of such equipment is not recognized and proclaimed by every authority which can make any pretense to a pedagogical hearing. It is rather because of what must be reckoned wholly extraneous considerations—a lack of funds with which to make the purchase, the unprogressive character of the school officials, or a failure on the part of the teacher himself to realize what are the indispensable tools of his calling and by insistence to obtain them."

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